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A. J. BRUMBAUGH, *Editor*

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Announcement

The reports of the joint educational conferences sponsored by the Educational Records Bureau, the American Council on Education, and other educational organizations and committees, were issued as supplements to the January number of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD* in the period 1938 to 1947. This procedure has been discontinued. The report of the Thirteenth Educational Conference, held in 1948, entitled *Education for the Preservation of Democracy*, is being published in April 1949 in the American Council on Education Studies, Series I, No. 35, Reports of Committees and Conferences.

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The Educational Record

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Potential Research Talent in the Sciences

Based on Intelligence Quotients of Ph.D.'s

By C. GILBERT WRENN

IN CONNECTION with a project undertaken in the spring of 1948 for the Conference Board of Associated Research Councils,¹ it became possible to examine the general scholastic aptitude test scores of 592 men who hold the Ph.D. degree in the natural (physical, biological, agricultural, and human) sciences. These represented a 62 percent sampling of all men being awarded the Ph.D. degree during the period 1940-47 who had taken their undergraduate degrees in Ohio and Minnesota. The staff of the Office of Scientific Personnel of the National Research Council collected test scores on all science Ph.D.'s for that period who had taken their undergraduate degree in four states where a state-wide testing program was known to exist. Only in Ohio and Minnesota was a single test used which would permit the combination of scores into a single distribution.

¹The American Council on Education, the Social Science Research Council, the American Council of Learned Societies, and the National Research Council; the work was undertaken by the Conference Board under a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation and carried out through the Office of Scientific Personnel of the National Research Council and the Social Science Research Center of the University of Minnesota.

Before analyzing the findings of this study, it may be well to point out why this investigation was made. For some time there has been a deep concern in the Associated Research Councils for what seemed to be a scarcity of qualified research leaders. Not only is there a current scarcity of research workers, varying in severity from field to field, but the supply of future workers is uncertain. The questions of specific demand in the various fields utilizing scientific research workers, the supply of high-level talent necessary in this field, and the most effective means of recruiting such talent were concerns of the councils. This paper describes a pilot study on supply. Needed research projects on supply, demand, and recruiting were also outlined for the councils and are separately reported elsewhere under the title "Basic Studies on the Supply and Demand of Research Talent."²

Considerable attention is devoted in this paper to the relation of the Ph.D. degree to research production. Likewise, this is a study of only the general intellectual aptitude required for the Ph.D. With these two limitations in mind it becomes necessary to make two categorical statements: (1) *There is no assumption that all men possessing the Ph.D. become research workers.* (2) *General intelligence as measured by a scholastic aptitude test is only one, not the sole, aptitude necessary for either Ph.D. training or research production.*

THE NATURE OF HIGH-LEVEL TALENT

Advancement in the sciences requires a high level of intellectual performance, that is, the ability to deal with concepts and principles in new and untried ways. Sheer intellectual quality is probably the prime requisite, but other aptitudes or talents are doubtless also involved. There is no disagreement here with the conclusions of the Committee on the Discovery of Outstanding Talent in Youth which are to the effect that our culture requires talents of at least four kinds—verbal, scientific, artistic, and social.³ The report inveighs against the tendency to over-

² To be published in an early issue of *The American Psychologist*.

³ *The Education of Youth in America* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947), pp. 260-68.

emphasize verbal abilities at the expense of the other three. Another committee of this same conference⁴ outlines eleven kinds of information that should be recorded as contributing to the identification of these aptitudes or talents. Professor Thurstone in contributing to the conclusions of the main committee presents a fairly similar hierarchy of basic abilities.⁵ He places scientific talent (not further defined) first, and follows with social, mechanical, artistic, and verbal abilities. The latter is stated as being central in our educational system, but not necessarily the most important talent.

It is difficult for the present writer to understand what is meant in these discussions by "scientific talent." It is not a known "primary ability" and is apparently thought of as a composite in which the strictly intellectual is a prime factor. As a matter of fact, Thurstone later on in his report states that the positive intercorrelation of the primary mental abilities is "due in part to an underlying general intellective factor which may be essentially the same as the intellective factor that Spearman identified many years ago." Many talents or aptitudes exist that can be theoretically viewed as distinct functions—social, mechanical, and artistic, for example—but the base factor remains an intellectual one which is perhaps most readily identified as a "management of symbols" factor (verbal and numerical).

If we accept the intellectual component of scientific aptitude as a primary factor, we can then consider the definition of the highest level of formal training of the intellectual component. For the purposes of this report it is assumed that the level of general academic training necessary both to original and applied research functions in the sciences is clearly no less than the Ph.D. or its training equivalent. This is a necessary assumption, although it must be recognized that not all who take a Ph.D. will possess either the necessary level of intellectual ability for original scientific work or the special psychological characteristics required for applied research. From this group, however, will

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 268-86.

⁵ L. L. Thurstone, *The Selection of Talent* (Chicago: Psychometric Laboratory, University of Chicago, 1946).

come the very great majority of those who will perform high-level science functions.

Of the 20,783 persons who received their Ph.D.'s during the decade 1930-31 to 1939-40 and who were employed in 1940, 65 percent were working in institutions of higher learning, 6 percent in other agencies of education, and 29 percent in government and industry.⁶ These major groups—education, industry, and government—will continue to draw upon the Ph.D. pool for their top-level research talent. The proportions engaged in the three fields may have changed markedly from those given in foregoing figures. One cue to this is the fact that of the 137,000 persons engaged during 1947 in scientific research, 36 percent were employed in institutions of higher learning, 42 percent in industry, and 22 percent in government.⁷

INTELLIGENCE TEST DATA ON PH.D.'s IN THE SCIENCES

The very significant problem of the measuring instrument that may be used to determine basic intellectual ability raises certain questions. For purposes of quick approximation, the assumption is made here that a scholastic aptitude test of sufficient scope will provide the best *single* predictive measure of the most *basic* aptitude necessary for Ph.D. training. There is full awareness of the limitations of the scholastic aptitude test. It is one factor only in the constellation of factors necessary for graduate work. Not all with high scores will do even satisfactory Ph.D. work, but the degree is impossible to secure without a necessary minimum of the quality measured by such a test.

Two types of derived scores are used in the studies that are to be analyzed in this section. Either the percentile rank or standard score based upon a described population is the most satisfactory derived measure for specific populations. It is very difficult, however, to compare such scores on one population with scores on another population unless an intermediate population

⁶ *Higher Education for American Democracy: The Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, I: Establishing the Goals* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947; New York: Harper & Bros., 1948), p. 87.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 92.

exists upon which both types of scores are available. The best derived score for our purpose would be from longitudinal studies using the same or equated tests, but these are rare indeed.

The second type of derived score is the intelligence quotient. This term possesses a high degree of emotional coloration for some individuals; but with appropriate attention to the assumptions involved, it is still a valuable measure. The IQ is not as constant as we once thought it to be; we are less certain of the degree of influence heredity has upon it; it does not measure a particularly well-defined psychological trait or traits; it must be used cautiously in connection with group or paper-and-pencil tests. But with a full understanding of such limitations as these, the IQ is a valuable concept for the present study where the identification of a very small segment of a large population is necessary.

In the collection of data previously mentioned, the Ohio State University supplied Ohio State University Psychological Test scores on 66 percent of the individuals who had taken undergraduate degrees in Ohio colleges prior to earning the Ph.D. in the sciences during the 1940-47 period. The University of Minnesota supplied scores on the A.C.E. Psychological Examination, 1937 edition, and other tests equated to this examination, on 61 percent of similar Ph.D.-holders who had taken undergraduate degrees in Minnesota colleges.

All of the Minnesota scores were on the A.C.E. 1937 edition, or had been equated to that edition. The O.S.U. scores were on a number of different forms, and the labor in transmuting them to a common scale proved a formidable task. Because a great deal of information was available from certain University of Minnesota studies on the A.C.E. 1937 edition, it was decided to maximize the data available on the Ohio and Minnesota Ph.D.'s by converting all O.S.U. scores to the A.C.E. 1937 edition, thus distributing all scores on a common scale. After losing a few scores for which no transmutation was possible, this process provided a total of 592 scores—232 Minnesota, and 360 Ohio. The combined total provided a 62 percent sampling of the 995

Ph.D.'s in the natural sciences with baccalaureate degrees earned in the two states.⁸

In terms of raw scores on A.C.E. and percentiles on University of Minnesota *freshmen* norms, the quartile points and other statistics for the two Ph.D. distributions are shown in Table 1. It must be remembered that these data show scores made as high school seniors or college freshmen by those who became Ph.D.'s many years later.

TABLE 1

EQUATED RAW SCORES OF OHIO AND MINNESOTA PH.D.'s ON 1937 FORM OF A.C.E. PSYCHOLOGICAL EXAMINATION, WITH PERCENTILE EQUIVALENTS AMONG THE PH.D. GROUP AND AMONG A COLLEGE FRESHMAN GROUP

(1) PERCENTILE VALUES IN DISTRIBUTION OF PH.D.'s	(2) 1937 FORM OF A.C.E., RAW SCORES		(3) UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA FRESHMAN PERCENTILES OF RAW SCORES IN COL. 2	
	232 Minn. Ph.D.'s	360 Ohio Ph.D.'s	Minn.	Ohio
90 percentile.....	143	145+	99	100
Q ₃ (75 percentile).....	121	135	94	98
Median (50 percentile).....	103	114	83	91
Q ₁ (25 percentile).....	85	81	62	56
10 percentile.....	67	65	35	33

It will be noted that the Ohio distribution is somewhat more negatively skewed than the Minnesota distribution. The two distributions were tested for homogeneity before combining them into one distribution, the statistics of which are shown in Table 2.

There is great advantage in translating raw scores on the A.C.E. into intelligence quotients so that direct comparisons can be made between this group and other groups upon which similar derived scores are available. This was facilitated by Embree's thorough study, made under the direction of Professor

⁸Transmutation of the O.S.U. to A.C.E. scores was made possible through the timely provision by Professor Herbert A. Toops of Ohio State University of data on the conversion of scores of Forms 10 through 20 to Form 21. Dr. Ralph F. Berdie, director of the Student Counseling Bureau of the University of Minnesota, then provided data from a 1942 study on the relationship of O.S.U. scores, Form 21, and A.C.E. scores, 1937 edition. This permitted the transmutation of all O.S.U. into A.C.E. scores.

TABLE 2

A.C.E. SCORES ON COMBINED SAMPLE OF OHIO AND MINNESOTA PH.D.'S

PERCENTILE VALUES IN DISTRIBUTION OF PH.D.'S	1937 FORM OF A.C.E., RAW SCORES
90 percentile.....	145
Q ₃ (75 percentile).....	130
Median 50 percentile.....	106
Q ₁ (25 percentile).....	81
10 percentile.....	66

W. S. Miller, which provided a basic equation between 1937 A.C.E. scores and a "midequated IQ." This IQ is the mid-value of five basic intelligence tests which had been administered to each entering class of the University High School of the University of Minnesota for fifteen years.

The principal equation utilized for the present report was one developed by Embree between the midequated IQ and 1937 A.C.E. scores, which in turn were converted into 1937 Stanford-Binet equivalents. All of the individuals upon whom the equation was based—96 males and 82 females of the graduating classes of 1938–40—had midequated IQ's determined at chronological ages below fourteen and one-half years.

With the use of this equation, shown to be based upon IQ's reasonably similar to IQ's derived from the 1937 Stanford revisions of the Binet Scale, it is possible to convert the A.C.E. scores of the combined Ph.D. groups into midequated IQ's and thence into 1937 Stanford-Binet IQ's. The statistics on the combined Ph.D. population are in Table 3.

Few studies of any kind could be found to check against this distribution of IQ's of a sample of Ph.D.'s. Indeed, it is believed that these figures on IQ distribution, representing two-thirds of all natural science Ph.D.'s in two states over an eight-year period, are unique. Two somewhat comparable studies are cited in succeeding paragraphs.

Embree gives the midequated and Stanford-Binet IQ's of 127

⁹ Royal B. Embree, *A Study of the Graduates of the University High School from 1921 to 1945 with Special Reference to Their Subsequent Careers* (Ph.D. dissertation; Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Library, 1947), 574 pp.

TABLE 3

IQ VALUES AT SPECIFIED PERCENTILE POINTS OF THE PH.D. DISTRIBUTION

Percentile Values in Distribution of 592 Ph.D.'s	1937 Form of A.C.E., Raw Scores	Conversion to 1937 Stanford-Binet IQ
90 percentile.....	145	167
Q ₃ (75 percentile).....	130	157
Median (50 percentile).....	106	141
Q ₁ (25 percentile).....	81	125
10 percentile.....	66	115

graduates of the University High School during 1921-42 who were later awarded degrees *beyond* the baccalaureate.¹⁰ The median Stanford-Binet IQ of these advanced degree-holders is 134, just six points above the mean IQ of the 477 University High School graduates who took bachelor's degrees. The 13 Ph.D.-holders in this group had a median IQ of 139, only two points removed from the median of the 592 Ph.D.'s of this study, as shown in Table 3. Reproduced in Table 4 is a portion of Embree's table.

TABLE 4*

MIDEQUATED AND 1937 STANFORD-BINET INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS OF UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES OF 1921-42 WHO HAD BEEN GRANTED ADVANCED DEGREES

Degree beyond the Bachelor's	N	Median	Q ₁	Q ₃	10 Percentile	1937 Stanford- Binet Median IQ
D.D.S.....	11	112	117	107	105	115
M.D.....	24	124	131	118	111	131
L.L.B.....	17	127	131	119	116	135
M.A. and M.S.....	62	127	134	120	111	135
Ph.D.....	13	130	136	127	125	139
All advanced degrees.....	127	126	132	118	110	134

* From Embree, *A Study of the Graduates of the University High School from 1921 to 1945 with Special Reference to Their Subsequent Careers* (Ph.D. dissertation; Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Library, 1947), pp. 495 and 516.

The published norms on W. S. Miller's Analogies Test for Graduate Students, Form G, show a mean analogies score of 68 for 170 graduate students at the University of Minnesota in 1940-41 who had indicated that they were Ph.D. candidates

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 495 and 516.

(had not taken their degree or passed their preliminary oral examinations). This, using conversion tables furnished by Miller, yields a mean IQ of 141, exactly the same as the median IQ for the 592 Ph.D.'s appearing in Table 3.

Miller followed up this group, and for 59 individuals in the sciences who had taken their Ph.D. by March 1948, a mean Miller Form G score of 67 and a converted Stanford-Binet IQ of 139 were found, identical with the IQ of Embree's small group. As will be pointed out later, there may be large differences in the ability level of candidates from different fields. If all of the Ph.D.'s from one field (14 individuals) are eliminated from this group, the mean IQ of those remaining rises to 145.

THE SUPPLY OF INDIVIDUALS WITHIN THE IQ RANGE OF THE SCIENCE PH.D.'s

Once the basic ability level required to earn the Ph.D. degree is established, as we have tried to do in the foregoing sections, there remains the question of estimating the number of such people available in the United States. In other words, what is the *potential supply* of individuals of appropriate age who are intellectually capable of taking Ph.D. training?

The basic data for this estimate are found in a table prepared by W. S. Miller, of the University of Minnesota. This table is reproduced here as Table 5. Miller makes his calculations from figures provided by Embree's estimate¹¹ of the percentage of the general population with ability equal to that of the 186,500 recipients of the baccalaureate degree in continental United States in 1940, but projects the study to the 1950 graduates. Professor Miller's comments on the interpretation of the table are as follows:

In column 4 of the chart the single age group (18) is used as representative of the general population from which college entrants come. This is possible because of the approximate numerical equality of the age group of college entrants. If these age groups were not approximately equal in number, it would be necessary to use as a base in column 4 the sum of numbers of each age group proportionate to their number in the college entrant's group.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 340-44 and 527.

TABLE 5

THE ABILITY (ESTIMATED IQ'S) OF 187,000 NON-GI RECIPIENTS OF BACCALAUREATE DEGREES, ESTIMATED FOR 1950, IN RELATION TO THAT OF THE ESTIMATED 2,400,000 EIGHTEEN-YEAR-OLDS IN CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES IN 1946

(by W. S. Miller)

IQ*	Sigma Deviations	P.R.'s among 2,400,000 18-Year-Olds	Cumulative Number of 18-Year-Olds above IQ Column 1	P.R.'s among 187,000 Bachelor Degrees	Cumulative Number of Bachelor Degrees above IQ Column 1
148.....	3.0000	99.865	3,240	99.2	2,592
146.....	2.875	99.8	4,800	98.1	3,553
144.....	2.75	99.7	7,200	97.3	5,050
140.....	2.5	99.4	14,400	94.8	9,700
135.....	2.1875	98.6	33,600	89.0	20,600
130.....	1.875	97.0	72,000	80.0	37,500
125.....	1.5625	94.0	144,000	65.0	65,550
120.....	1.25	89.4	254,400	50.0	93,500
115.....	0.9375	82.5	420,000	40.0	112,200
110.....	0.625	73.4	638,400	25.0	140,250
105.....	0.3125	62.3	904,800	10.0	168,300
100.....	0.0000	50.0	1,200,000	5.0	177,650
100.....	50.0	1,200,000	9,350
Total.....	2,400,000	187,000

* 1937 revision, Stanford-Binet, mean IQ 100, S.D. 16.

The 2,400,000 in column 4 is an estimate from federal census data of the 18 year old youth in 1946.

The 187,000 in column 6 is an estimate from United States Office of Education reports of the probable number of non-G.I. recipients of the baccalaureate degree in 1950. The number of graduates above each I.Q. level (in column 6) are direct percentages of the 187,000 as read from the percentile rank given in column 5. For example at the 50 percentile rank will be found the figure 93,500 which is one-half of the total of 187,000. At the 89 percentile rank is the figure 20,600 which corresponds to 11 per cent (100-89) of the 187,000.

It is assumed that the distribution of college aptitude in the general population is best represented by the norms established in the 1937 revision of the Stanford Binet Test in which the mean intelligence quotient is 100 and the standard deviation is 16.

The validity of inferences drawn from this chart is dependent upon the accuracy of the estimated percentile ranks recorded in column 5. In an earlier draft of the chart the I.Q. of the median college graduate (col-

umn 5) was estimated from longitudinal studies at 125. After learning that only 85,000 of the 187,500 baccalaureate degrees granted in 1940 were from liberal arts colleges the estimate of the median I.Q. was changed to 120, which is 1.25 standard deviation, (column 2) above the mean of the general population or a percentile rank of 89.4 (column 3). This means that one-half of college graduates have ability comparable to about the best 10% of the general population.

Obviously one cannot be very certain of the estimated P.R., 99.2, of a college graduate (column 5) with an I.Q. of 148. However, studies of gifted children lend support to these upper range estimates.

Let us admit that locating in the general population norms the median aptitude of college graduates is very difficult because of (1) the inadequacy of our measures of college aptitude of either college graduates or the general population, (2) the presence of many other factors related to success in college but not measured by our aptitude tests, and (3) the variation of standards of degree-granting institutions.

Granting all this, the fact remains that results of longitudinal studies made by Benson, Embree and others of students whose I.Q.'s were determined prior to age 15 years lead one to have considerable confidence in the above estimates.

The chart would be materially altered were one to consider graduates only of accredited institutions, or of institutions known to be highly selective in admissions.

The author believes that the estimates in the chart are generous enough to approximate national practices at present. This belief has some support from the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education from which I quote: "At least 32 per cent of our population has the mental ability to complete an advanced liberal or specialized professional education [four years of college]."

According to our chart the lower limit of this 32 per cent would fall at P.R. 68, column 3, which would be a sigma deviation of .47 I.Q. approx. 108, A.G.C.T. approx. 110, and P.R. of about 15 among college graduates, column 5. In other words, one would infer from the chart that 85 per cent of college graduates would qualify for the Commission's 32 per cent of the population with the mental ability adequate to complete the 16 years of liberal arts or technical college.

The agreement of the two estimates is more significant when one considers the different bases for the estimates. The President's Commission utilized Army General Classification Test results in relation to results from the A.C.E., 1942 edition.

Miller states that if only graduates of accredited institutions were considered, his IQ levels (with a median of 120 for graduates) would have to be revised upwards. The following evidence from the studies by Embree and Benson supports his conclusion: Embree's 477 University High School students who took bachelor's degrees had a median Stanford-Binet IQ of 128;¹² Benson¹³ reports a median 1937 Stanford-Binet equivalent IQ of 127 for 99 (out of an original population of 1,680 sixth-graders) sixth-graders who received bachelor's degrees.

If, for purposes of tentative investigation as to supply, one took the Q_1 point of the Ph.D.-holders (Table 3), it would be found by entering Miller's table (Table 5) that there were 144,000 eighteen-year-olds with IQ's of 125 and above, and that approximately 65,500 of these can be expected to secure bachelor's degrees. This 65,000 is a potential supply of Ph.D.'s who would have general aptitudes above the lowest quarter of present Ph.D.'s. This is, of course, exclusive of the veteran group now in colleges, all of whom are older than the eighteen-year-old group upon which this estimate was based. *Exclusive of veterans, it includes about one-third of all who may be awarded an A.B. or B.S. in 1950.*

When the proportion at or above the median IQ of the Ohio and Minnesota Ph.D. group (IQ=141) is examined in Table 5, only 5 percent of the bachelors are included, or a total of approximately 9,000 individuals. This is at about the 99.5 percentile of the general population of eighteen-year-olds.

There are two major questions to be answered with regard to supply: (1) how many of this potential group may be expected to take advanced degrees or more specifically Ph.D.'s, and (2) how many of the remainder of the reservoir could conceivably be encouraged to undertake training for such degrees? These two broad questions can be broken down into the following working proposals:

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 516.

¹³ Viola Benson, "The Intelligence and Later Scholastic Success of Sixth Grade Pupils," *School and Society*, LV (February 7, 1942), 163-67.

1. What proportion of the college graduates of any one year have advanced degrees in general and Ph.D. degrees in particular?

2. If an estimate based upon the answer to (1) is reached, what allowance should be made for the increased college population of veterans whose education has been deferred and who will soon pass out of the college picture?

3. If estimates of size of college population for the future years are made, what variables will make such a college-graduate population different from preceding populations of college graduates in terms of expectancy of graduate work?

One simple approach to the question of what proportion of college graduates have secured the advanced degree of Ph.D. is to examine the census figures on the relationship between advanced degrees and baccalaureate degrees in any one year. If the absolute number of college graduates has held relatively constant over the preceding five years, during which time it could be postulated that a majority of Ph.D.'s would have secured their baccalaureate, the statement of proportion between baccalaureate and advanced degrees could be applied with reasonable validity to the Ph.D. expectancy from any one year's crop of baccalaureates.

This proportion has been found to hold quite constant from the years 1936 through 1942: 15 percent as many secured advance degrees and 1.85 percent as many secured doctoral degrees as secured baccalaureate and first professional degrees for the same period.¹⁴ A total of 3,290 "doctoral degrees" is indicated for the year 1940. It is not known how many of these are Ph.D.'s as opposed to some other degree, except indirectly through knowledge of the breakdown into disciplines by doctoral dissertations accepted in 1939-40 as follows:¹⁵

¹⁴ *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1946*, Bureau of the Census (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1946), p. 134.

¹⁵ *Doctoral Dissertations Accepted by American Universities, 1939-40* (New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1940).

Physical sciences.....	861
Biological sciences.....	824
Social sciences.....	799
Literature and art.....	388
Earth sciences.....	101
Total	3,088

Applying these percentages of 15 and 1.85 to the anticipated 187,000 nonveteran baccalaureates in 1950, we could anticipate 28,050 nonveteran advanced degrees and 3,460 doctoral degrees in 1950.

However, the U.S. Office of Education reports that 4,439 doctorates were awarded during the academic year 1948.¹⁶ (A maximum of 3,962 of these can be assumed to be Ph.D. degrees, that is, are in fields where the Ph.D. degree is customary, and about 50 percent of the Ph.D.'s are in the natural sciences.) This is an increase of approximately 36 percent doctoral degrees in 1948 over the anticipated number of *non-veteran* doctoral degrees for 1950 and provides a clue to the effect of the veteran bulge in college enrollment. If one assumed that because of increased income incentive to secure a Ph.D. this 36 percent increase at the doctorate level would increase to 50 percent by 1950, a prediction of 5,290 doctoral degrees can be made for that year.

Another means of estimating the influence of veteran's enrollment upon the total to be awarded Ph.D.'s in 1950 is through the determination of the proportion of the veterans in the total college population in 1947. In 1947 there were 2,354,000 enrolled in institutions of higher education, 854,000 more than in 1940. Of this total approximately a million were veterans.¹⁷ Assuming that all of those in excess of 1947 over 1940, presumably all of whom were veterans, will go forward to baccalaureates and to advanced degrees in the same proportion as the normal 1940 and the assumed normal 1950 class, there will be 57 percent more advanced degrees in 1950 than in 1940. This

¹⁶ *Survey of Earned Degrees Granted During the Year Ending June, 1948* (Washington: U.S. Office of Education, August 10, 1948), 5 pp.

¹⁷ *Higher Education for American Democracy*, I, 25.

provides an estimated total of 5,165 doctoral degrees in 1950. Somewhere between 5,000 and 5,500 doctoral degrees in all fields in 1950 seems *the best minimum estimate*. In terms of 1948 estimates above, about 4,700 of these will be Ph.D.'s and about 2,500 in the natural sciences.

These facts on supply are summarized at this point and in Table 6:

TABLE 6
SUMMARY TABLE ON RELATION OF PH.D. DISTRIBUTION TO OTHER GROUPS

Distribution of Ohio and Minnesota Ph.D.'s (N=592)	Stanford-Binet IQ (1937) Equivalent	Minnesota H.S. Graduates (1938) Equivalent	University of Minnesota Freshmen (1938) Equivalent	Estimated University of Minnesota Seniors Equivalent	Estimated 2,400,000 18-Year-Olds in 1946 Equivalent	Estimated 187,000 Non-GI Graduates (1950) Equivalent	Estimated Number Ph.D.'s 1950 in All Fields and Ability Levels
25th percentile..	125	80th percentile	56th percentile	40th percentile	94th percentile number above = 144,000	65th percentile number above = 65,550	5,000 to 5,500
50th percentile..	141	94th percentile	85th percentile	77th percentile	99.5th percentile number above = 14,000	95th percentile number above = 9,000	

1. If a cut-off score of Q_1 of the Ph.D. group is taken (IQ equal to 125), there were 144,000 eighteen-year-olds in 1946 with intelligence quotients at or above that level. This is the potential for the college graduates from whom Ph.D.'s would come, consisting of the upper 6 percent of the total eighteen-year-olds in the United States. An estimated one-half, or 65,550 of the 144,000, will graduate from college in 1950. This plus the veteran group is our potential for Ph.D.'s. It consists of the upper one-third of all non-GI college graduates.

2. If the cut-off point is taken at the median of the Ph.D. group (IQ equal to 141) only 14,000 eighteen-year-olds would reach or exceed this level as would only 9,000 non-GI college graduates. The college graduates at this level are now over half of the potential, and the reservoir for Ph.D.'s becomes greatly restricted. (See also Table 6.)

THE SUPPLY OF COLLEGE FRESHMEN

The supply available at the *college freshman* level is suggested in an extensive follow-up study of 1948 Minnesota high school graduates by Anderson and Berning.¹⁸ These graduates (75 percent of the total high school graduate population for that year) were given the A.C.E. 1937 edition as part of the state-wide testing program. Figures given by Anderson and Berning indicate that 23 percent of all Minnesota 1938 high school graduates were in college or university in April of the following year. When the original data were re-examined for use in the present study, only 20 percent of the high school graduates were found to have A.C.E. scores above the Q_1 of our Ph.D. group (IQ of 125) and only 52 percent of this top group were in college in April 1939. This figure was confirmed by a 1946 follow-up of the 1945 high school graduating class where almost the same percentage of women above IQ 125 were in college (48 percent in 1946 as compared to 50 percent in 1939). Because of the pull of the draft the number of men in college that year was greatly atypical and cannot be considered representative.

The not-so-happy ending of this top group of 1938 Minnesota high school graduates is revealed in a final follow-up study of the top 16 percent in either A.C.E. scores or high school rank made by the university in 1947, nine years later. By this time, only 45 percent had received baccalaureate degrees, and 8 percent had earned advanced degrees.¹⁹ In approximate figures, *only 4 percent of the high school graduates with IQ's of 125 and above had earned advanced degrees nine years after high school graduation.* In spite of the fact that the war greatly retarded the normal progress of all high school graduates, this is a poor showing for the educational persistence of

¹⁸ G. Lester Anderson, and T. J. Berning, "What Happens to High School Graduates?" *Studies in Higher Education, Biennial Report of the Committee on Educational Research, University of Minnesota, 1938-40* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1941), pp. 15-40.

¹⁹ Unpublished data made available by Bureau of Institutional Research, University of Minnesota.

the potentially most-able young people. Why do they drop out? What are the factors which determine how many will come through college and go on to advanced degrees?

The socioeconomic factor is certainly significant in determining the proportion of those who attend college. Two studies quoted in Warner, Havighurst, and Loob's volume are pertinent to this question.²⁰ In a study of 910 children in Pennsylvania with IQ's of 110 and above, a division was made into two groups on the basis of socioeconomic status. In the socioeconomic group, 57 percent attended college, and in the lower group only 13 percent. Another study by Goetsch, as reported in the Warner volume, included 1,023 students who graduated from Milwaukee high schools in 1936 with IQ's of 117 and above. Two years later 94 percent of those whose fathers' income was \$5,000 and over were in college, 73 percent of those whose fathers' income was \$3,000 and over, 44 percent with fathers' income of \$2,000 and over, 27 percent with fathers' income under \$1,000. This is economic determinism with a vengeance.

Other studies of similar import are cited in the President's Commission Report.²¹ Toops, on the other hand, in his Ohio study found that the vocation of the parent was an important factor in determining the proportion of those who attended college but that sheer economic status was not.²² He believes that the attitude of the parents toward college-going is the important factor.

The availability and wage level of jobs is another determining factor. There are a little over seven million veterans' educational eligibility certificates as yet (1947-48) unexhausted, and the extent to which these will be utilized depends largely upon the economic status of the country. Job scarcity always has

²⁰ W. Lloyd Warner, Robert J. Havighurst, and Martin B. Loob, *Who Shall Be Educated: The Challenge of Unequal Opportunities* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1944).

²¹ *Higher Education for American Democracy, II: Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity*, 13-16.

²² Herbert A. Toops, "Prediction of College-Going," *School and Society*, LI (March 2, 1940), 257-61.

meant a higher educational enrollment, and this will be particularly true for the veterans if jobs become less easily available than at present or if the gap between possible full-time earnings and the size of subsistence checks is lessened.

With the data at hand it is virtually impossible to estimate how many—beyond the normal expectation of 5,000 to 5,500 in 1950—of the 65,000 potentials might be expected to go on to the doctorate if conditions varied sharply from the present. Considerable attention to incentives and the stimulation of capable individuals to do graduate work is necessary if the flow of high-level talent to the graduate schools is to be increased. Our present knowledge of demand for research workers in the social sciences, natural sciences, and humanities areas is not precise, but enough is known to justify a deep concern over the increase of supply.

The Financing of Public Higher Education in the United States¹

By H. K. NEWBURN

THE PRESENT CRITICAL international situation emphasizes with startling clarity that our only long-range safeguard against constantly recurring warfare is a sufficient bulwark of individuals so truly educated that collectively they will be able to create a world climate in which man may live at peace with his fellows. While this distant hope must not be permitted to substitute for the necessities of the moment, it does present to our profession—and particularly that segment dealing with higher education—a challenge the like of which cannot be duplicated at any point in our society.

To meet this challenge with any degree of success, the program of higher education must be so organized and administered as to provide the finest possible educational environment for all who are willing and able to profit from such experience. This success will come only if *all* facilities in higher education, public and private alike, are fully utilized, and if blueprints for educational developments are given equal emphasis with plans to prepare the nation for waging war successfully, should war become necessary.

The fiscal objective of higher education is simply that of securing the necessary funds to do the job at hand and *not* that of maintaining the institutions regardless of their effectiveness, as some would seem to propose. The educational institutions have been given the task of meeting the nation's needs for intelligent, competent, and responsible leadership in all aspects of American life, and an adequate budget is an essential element in the satisfactory completion of this assignment.

In 1940 there were listed in the United States 1,751 institutions of higher education, of which 603, about one-third, were publicly supported. Of these, 358 were universities, colleges, or separately operated professional schools, and the remaining

¹ An address delivered at the annual meeting of the American Council on Education, May 7-8, 1948, Chicago, Illinois.

245 were teachers colleges or normal schools. The public schools enrolled approximately 800,000 students, a little more than 50 percent of the million and a half attending institutions of higher education in that year. Instruction was provided by a staff of over 62,000 men and women, about 47 percent of the full-time faculty members in higher education that year (131,552).

Of the \$522,000,000 spent in 1940 for current operations, \$269,000,000, or 52 percent, was expended by those schools under public control. In 1947 total expenditures in higher education had increased to approximately \$1,000,000,000, of which \$526,000,000, or 52 percent, represented the outlay of the public institutions. The publicly supported schools turned almost exclusively to student fees and government sources for support, with about twenty cents of every dollar spent coming from student fees, and sixty-eight cents from public funds divided as follows: about fifty cents from state governments, ten cents from the federal government, and eight cents from local agencies. Only four cents of every dollar of income was philanthropic in origin. Postwar developments have changed this picture considerably and temporarily, since it is estimated that more than 38 percent of the income for publicly supported institutions in 1947 was derived from student fees (\$202,000,000), of which almost two-thirds (\$129,271,000) came from the federal government as payment for veterans' tuition. It should also be noted that the publicly supported schools hold only 10 percent of the \$2,000,000,000 in productive endowment funds owned by institutions of higher education.

We are to discuss, then, the financing of some six hundred publicly supported institutions which before the war enrolled slightly more than half, and today almost two-thirds, of the students; which employed in 1940 a little less than half of the teaching staff attached to institutions of collegiate grade, and which spend just slightly more than half of the current annual operating budget for higher education. These schools depend very heavily upon public sources and student fees for income, with well over two-thirds of their total resources derived from the former and about one-fifth from the latter source. During

the present period of heavy veteran attendance, fee income has increased considerably, with almost two-fifths of the total budget derived from this source, a great portion from the federal government in the form of payment for veterans' tuition.

Now to turn to an analysis of the financial problems faced by these publicly supported institutions of higher education as they attempt to meet their responsibilities in the years immediately ahead.

First, *there is little justification for anticipating a permanent leveling-off of enrollments in higher education at the prewar level, even though there may be a temporary lull in increases or even a slight decrease in registrations during the next few years as the veterans move out of the picture.* However, if all qualified and interested youth are given the opportunity to attend college, a considerable increase over the present high enrollment figure must be expected and planned for. College enrollments have moved steadily upward in recent years until in 1940 about 16 percent of the eighteen- to twenty-one-year-olds was in attendance. A continuation of the prewar enrollment trends indicates a registration of between 2,900,000 and 3,000,000 students in 1960, approximately 25 percent of the eighteen- to twenty-one-year-olds at that time. At the other extreme, the President's Commission on Higher Education has suggested, if proper conditions are provided to encourage enrollment, the institutions must be prepared to care for not less than 4,600,000 in 1960, of which 4,000,000 will be enrolled at the undergraduate level. This would mean half of the eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds and one-third of the twenty- and twenty-one-year-olds would be in attendance along with approximately 600,000 older graduate students. The most conservative estimate seen by this speaker was made recently by a committee of the National Conference on Higher Education when this group reduced its estimate of last year from a prediction of 3,000,000 to 2,500,000 students in 1960, but even this conservative prediction exceeds the 1940 registration by one million and is somewhat higher than the enrollment in the fall of 1947, which included about a million overage veterans.

In the second place, *it is obvious that any further expansion*

in enrollment over the prewar levels must be cared for largely, if not wholly, by the institutions under public control. Actually, this has happened during the recent period of rapidly expanding enrollments. While the public schools almost doubled their registration between 1940 and 1947 (800,000 to 1,500,000), the private institutions during this same period expanded only from approximately 700,000 to an estimated 900,000 students. Some private colleges and universities emphasize that even this expansion must be considered as temporary in nature, and that they hope at the earliest possible moment to return to prewar enrollment levels. This desire is understandable on practical as well as philosophical grounds since in most cases each enrollee pays half or less of his educational costs, and the remainder must be made up from other sources which are definitely limited in nature.

It has been estimated (President's Commission) that if the privately operated institutions continue their present enrollment of about 900,000 students, assess average tuition fees of \$300 per year, and double their prewar income from gifts (\$100,000,000 in 1940), they will barely balance their budgets if they maintain an adequate program in the years ahead. Under such circumstances these institutions cannot be expected to take on greater obligations. This means, therefore, that the public schools must be prepared for an enrollment of not less than 1,600,000 in 1960 and possibly for as many as 3,700,000, depending upon the basis of prediction, as compared with about 800,000 in 1940. This obligation must be met if the nation is to realize in practice the objectives inherent in the establishment of a comprehensive program of *public* higher education.

Third, since the publicly supported institutions must not only provide for greater numbers but at considerably greater unit costs, *the annual budget for public higher education in the years ahead will be much greater than anything experienced prior to the war.*

Careful estimates made by the President's Commission on Higher Education indicate that it will cost at least \$562 per pupil to provide an adequate program in 1960, as compared with an average of \$338 for the public schools in 1940, and

an estimated average of approximately \$500 per pupil for all institutions in 1947. This means an annual cost in 1960 for current operations in the publicly supported institutions varying from \$1,138,000,000 for an enrollment based on a continuation of prewar trends, to \$2,000,000,000 for the enrollment predicted by the President's Commission. This cost is four to seven times the cost of public higher education in 1940, and two to four times the cost of *all* higher education in that year.

In addition, the public institutions will face during the next few years heavy expenditures for capital outlay to rehabilitate present structures and to construct the new buildings necessary to care for larger enrollments. If it is assumed that the prewar average of 155 square feet per student is to be maintained—and some authorities believe this is inadequate—the publicly supported institutions will need a total of well over 300,000,000 square feet of additional floor space by 1960. Indications are that provisions have already been made to acquire over 140,000,000 square feet of this space, thus leaving a total of about 270,000,000 square feet to be provided. At an estimated cost of \$18 per square foot, this will require an expenditure of approximately \$3,000,000,000 by 1960, or about \$300,000,000 annually for the decade 1950 to 1960. If the same assumptions are made for the maximum predicted enrollment, the total expenditures will be approximately \$7,000,000,000, or about \$700,000,000 annually during the decade. The publicly supported institutions, therefore, will require an annual budget in 1960 varying from approximately \$1,450,000,000 for 2,000,000 students, to \$2,700,000,000 for 3,700,000 students.

Fourth, *the proportion of the income realized through the assessment of fees in the publicly operated institutions cannot be increased.* This nation has always depended rather heavily upon the student and his family for the direct support of higher education through the collection of fees; and while the tuition levels in the publicly operated schools have been considerably lower than in the private colleges, about one-fifth of the income in such institutions normally is derived from this source. Since fees are flexible in nature, they tend to be increased when there is need for additional income and when other sources do not

provide sufficient funds. The average increase in fees from 1938 to 1946 was 28 percent, and in some areas of education they have become so high as to raise serious question relative to the economic barrier they are helping to create. In medicine, for example, the average annual fee charged by the public institutions to resident students was \$331 in 1946. Add to this room and board charges, the cost of books, equipment, supplies, and other incidental expenses, and there is created an almost insurmountable obstacle to many qualified individuals. When it is kept in mind that half of the children under eighteen years of age come from families with incomes of \$2,530 or less, the problem is made more evident. Considerable evidence is available to indicate that as many as half of those with ability to profit from higher education may be denied such opportunity because of low family income combined with high educational costs.

If education in the publicly supported institutions is to be made available to all qualified youth regardless of economic status, it is evident that increases in student fees should not be contemplated but that, rather, efforts should be directed at the elimination of the barriers caused by the already high charges in many areas. The President's Commission, for example, proposes the elimination of all fees in the public institutions through the fourteenth grade and the rolling back of fees at upper levels to the 1939 average of approximately \$105 per year. If this were done, a considerably smaller proportion of the budget for the publicly supported institutions would come from fees in the future.

Fifth, it appears quite likely that between eighty and ninety cents of every dollar expended by the publicly supported institutions in the future must come from public funds. This means, even on the basis of minimum enrollment predictions, major increases in allocations to higher education from state and national governments.

Total direct public allocations in 1960 will vary from one and a half to two and a half billion, depending upon the enrollment assumed, or eight to thirteen times the income from such sources in 1940.

While it is evident that both the states and the federal government must make considerably greater grants in direct support of higher education, the relative contribution to be made in each case is not readily determined. Not only must the comparative ability of the states and the federal government to participate be considered, but also the basic assumptions around which such support should be established. Any plan for state and federal participation must recognize that education is definitely the responsibility of the states and that nothing should be done to deprive them of control over the educational program. On the other hand, it is increasingly clear that the nation as a whole cannot remain uninterested in what is happening to the youth of the country who are in attendance at the schools of higher learning within the various states. Somewhere within the framework of these two considerations, then, lies the general basis for considering the amount and character of the contribution to be made by the federal and the state governments.

This writer believes firmly that each state should make the fullest possible effort to support its educational program before turning to the federal government for assistance. It is a great temptation today in all areas of activity to request the federal treasury for help when financial difficulties are encountered, but every effort should be made to guard against succumbing to such temptation in the case of support for higher education. In 1940 the median state invested directly only .3 percent of its income in higher education, and only seven states provided as much as .5 percent. Certainly it does not seem unreasonable to expect the state to devote one two-hundredth of its income in support of public higher education. If this had been done in 1947, \$1,000,000,000 would have been made available from this source, which approximates the total cost of higher education, public and private, in that year. It is proposed, therefore, that as a rule of thumb, the states contribute .5 percent of their income annually to higher education, and that the remainder of the public grants, except for a small amount to come from local governmental agencies, be contributed by the federal government.

There are additional reasons for emphasizing relatively heavy

participation of the states in the support of higher education. As was mentioned, the extremely large expenditures to which the federal government is already committed indicate that only the minimum essential aid to higher education can logically be expected in the years immediately ahead. Entirely apart from the feasibility of securing such assistance, however, is the necessity of requesting the federal government to provide considerable aid at other points in support of higher education. It is estimated, for example, that between \$100,000,000 and \$200,000,000 annually will be required for a nation-wide scholarship and fellowship program designed to aid the competent individual possessed of inadequate means in his efforts to secure an education. Such an investment, which is essential to counteract the influence of high educational costs even in the public institutions, will vary from small amounts in some cases to as much as \$1,500 annually, depending upon the program the student is carrying, and can be supported only with major grants from the federal government to supplement the contribution of those states able to provide funds for this purpose. Only if such a program were in operation would it be possible to justify continuation of the present tuition fees at all levels in the publicly supported institutions. Such grants should be administered by the states and should go to the individual student to be utilized at any accredited institution to which he can secure admission. To the extent possible, the recipients should be required to demonstrate that they are helping themselves to the utmost as a concomitant to such supplementary assistance.

Furthermore, the federal government will undoubtedly wish to add to its support of institutional research and to the present program of purchasing services essential to the general welfare of the nation. The necessity of encouraging basic research in the natural sciences is clearly recognized, but it is equally important that the nation realize the necessity of promoting search for truth in those areas where value-judgments motivate and guide human conduct. The amounts which could be utilized in such endeavors are practically unlimited. If we are to secure adequate assistance from the federal government in support of scholarships and research, the direct and general support of

higher education must be kept to the minimum consistent with the maintenance of an adequate program of higher education throughout the nation.

On the other hand, the great variations existing in the ability of the various states to provide adequate support for higher education cannot be ignored, and this factor alone makes it imperative that federal funds be made available to equalize educational opportunity among the various states. While such aid probably should be provided to all states, it should be distributed on the basis of need under the assumption that such assistance, along with a national scholarship and fellowship program, will go far toward lowering, if not eliminating, the present economic barrier to higher education.

The writer believes enrollment in institutions of higher education will be nearer to 3,000,000 than to 4,600,000 in 1960, even with the encouragement of free tuition in grades thirteen and fourteen and the possible stimulation of a comprehensive scholarship and fellowship program. This means that the publicly operated institutions will have an enrollment of approximately 2,000,000 students and will need an annual budget of approximately \$1,450,000,000. The total income from philanthropy, fees, and miscellaneous sources will be less than \$200,000,000, leaving almost \$1,250,000,000 to come from public funds. If the states provided \$1,000,000,000 of this amount by allocating one two-hundredth of their income to higher education, the federal government will be required to provide approximately \$300,000,000 annually in general support. If modest fees were retained in grades thirteen and fourteen as well as at the upper levels, the federal contribution could be reduced to approximately \$200,000,000 annually. While \$300,000,000 does not seem large in these days, it should be kept in mind that only in recent weeks has Congress become seriously interested in proposals for the granting of \$300,000,000 annually to the elementary and secondary schools, where the problem is even more critical than at the higher level.

It hardly seems necessary to mention that serious difficulties will be encountered in efforts to secure the increases suggested in allocations from the various state legislatures to support higher

education. While an investment of \$1,000,000,000 annually represents a small fraction of the total income of all persons, such a sum would be an increase of approximately \$850,000,000 annually over the 1940 allocations by the various states to higher education. With all the competition existing today for state funds, it will be necessary for the responsible leaders in higher education to present the fiscal needs with clarity and intelligence along with a clear-cut picture of the contribution of education to the general welfare of the respective states and the nation.

It is impossible, therefore, to predict an easy and comfortable future for the public institutions of higher education in this country. If they are to make their potential contribution to the welfare of the nation, they must not only take care of larger numbers of students, but also at the same time improve the quality of their product. If the qualitative aspect of the program is to be upgraded, the budget for higher education must be greatly increased. If additional funds are to be obtained without at the same time erecting still higher barriers to education on economic grounds, they must come largely from public sources. This means considerably larger annual grants on the part of the federal, as well as the state, governments in the general support of higher education. It means, further, that the federal government must aid the states in the elimination of economic barriers through the provision of relatively large sums for nation-wide scholarship and fellowship programs to be administered by the states. The states, on the other hand, must devote a larger share of the total state budget to higher education in recognition of the social importance of this major public activity.

This nation is facing an interesting and serious dilemma. Believing as we do in the possibility of peace among all mankind, we are at present concentrating heavily on all-out preparation for war. We must not permit such efforts, necessary though they may be to the welfare of the nation, to cloud our vision or to turn us from our belief that the only true hope of mankind lies in the improvability of the individual. To this end the nation must consciously direct its efforts, and the colleges and universities of the land must continuously dedicate their full energies.

Evaluative Procedures for the Improvement of Instruction

By JAMES E. GREENE and WARREN G. FINDLEY

THIS PAPER is one of a projected series¹ dealing with the educational programs of the United States Air Force's newly established Air University. It is the present concern of the writers to describe briefly and appraise critically an approach to the improvement of instruction by means of appropriate evaluative procedures. Although the descriptive materials refer specifically to conditions obtaining in Air University, an attempt will be made to point out possible implications of this approach for civilian institutions of higher learning.

In order to make more meaningful the viewpoints and materials to be presented, an attempt will be made to describe briefly the setting in which the evaluative procedures to be discussed were employed.

Air University is a newly created institution of higher learning operated since 1946 as a separate command of the United States Air Force to provide advanced professional training in five constituent schools for commissioned officers from the time of commissioning to the time of retirement. All commissioned officers attend its lowest school; the higher schools are attended by selected quotas. During 1947-48 the officers attending the five constituent schools numbered about three thousand, ranging in rank from second lieutenant to general officers. The faculties consisted of about three hundred instructors—predominantly military personnel with little previous training or experience as instructors.

The military and civilian authorities responsible for planning

¹ Other papers in this series which have been published include the following: James E. Greene, "The Evaluation of Instruction in Air University," *Journal of Psychology*, XXV (1948), 279-97; Hugh F. Seabury and Kenneth R. Williams, "Air University Trains Instructors," *Higher Education*, IV (September 15, 1947), 15-18; Kenneth R. Williams and Alder M. Jenkins, "Improving Instruction in Institutions of Higher Education," *EDUCATIONAL RECORD*, XXIX (April 1948), 145-61.

nificant appraisals of the appropriateness of the objectives and the instructional procedures employed. Conversely, poorly conceived or technically deficient evaluation devices may negate good instruction and even create serious problems of morale.

The attempts to implement this philosophy of evaluation in Air University have taken many forms. In all cases an effort has been made to relate these activities to the facilities and circumstances obtaining in the local situation. Particular attention has been given to the full utilization of the organization and functions of the Educational Advisory Staff in implementing this philosophy. For example, in connection with the *advisory* functions of the Educational Advisory Staff as operative at the higher military echelons where major educational policies are formed, the impact of this viewpoint has manifested itself in the formulation of standard operating procedures and the issuance of directives relating to educational policy and procedure.

As a result of the acceptance of this philosophy at the headquarters and commandant echelons, members of the instructional staffs are directed to consult the Educational Advisory Staff concerning the planning, construction, administration, and revision of evaluative instruments and procedures to be employed for given units of instruction and for other purposes. It is to be emphasized, however, that the Educational Advisory Staff does not have, and scrupulously avoids the appearance of having, any line authority. Consequently, the chief and final responsibility for evaluation rests with the administrative and instructional staffs rather than with the Educational Advisory Staff. This policy reflects that portion of the over-all philosophy of evaluation which insists that it is neither possible nor desirable to divorce evaluative functions from administrative and instructional functions.

Perhaps the most comprehensive impact of this approach to evaluation is found in connection with the *instructor-training* functions of the Educational Advisory Staff. Members of the staff offer six hours of instruction in evaluation in an instructor-training course which headquarters' directive requires each regular instructor to complete. The purpose of this instruction is to

develop understandings concerning the role of evaluation in the improvement of instruction and to develop minimal skills in the construction and use of various types of tests and other evaluative instruments. This formal instruction is supplemented by informal instruction in connection with the performance of the advisory and technical-service functions of the staff.

Since most members of the instructional staffs have had relatively little training or experience in the technical aspects of evaluation, it early became evident that the maximum implementation of our philosophy of evaluation would require the Educational Advisory Staff to perform a variety of *technical services*^{*} at the request of the administrative and instructional staffs.

Another significant facet of the approach involved systematic efforts to develop harmonious and effective working relationships with members of the administrative and instructional staffs. In this connection it is well to recall that the Educational Advisory Staff has no line authority. By deliberate intent its advisory and technical services are available on a voluntary basis. Only a few of its members have had military experience or previous experience in military instruction. Many circumstances dictated the desirability of developing the evaluation program along lines which would insure its genuine acceptance. Both as a matter of principle and as a matter of expediency, the Educational Advisory Staff from the beginning adopted the deliberate tactic of giving prompt and serious consideration to every request for advisory, instructional, or technical assistance—however trivial or superficial that particular request might appear to be as compared with other requests which might equally well have been

^{*}The nature of these technical services varied from one situation to another. In situations involving instructor-made objective examinations these technical services commonly involved calculations of measures of the difficulty and validity of individual test items; analyses of the effectiveness of alternatives; assistance in the revision of alternatives and in rewording the stems to statements; and assistance in the construction of new items to replace items shown to be faulty. In other situations these technical services took the form of providing assistance in the construction of rating scales and other specialized evaluative instruments; determining the specific prognostic values of a given test or battery of tests; and so forth.

made. This practice was pursued in the light of the following beliefs: that "outside" professional assistance in the improvement of instruction will be helpful in proportion as it is earnestly desired; that such assistance will most likely be initially requested about problems of immediate interest over which some real concern is felt but with respect to which the instructor feels no threat to his basic security by requesting outside professional assistance; that if the assistance requested is promptly obtained and contributes to, rather than threatens his sense of security, the instructor will be increasingly able to sense, and to seek assistance concerning problems of increasingly crucial importance; that any real problem on which the instructor genuinely desires assistance, however relatively unimportant it may be as compared with other problems which he fails to sense or is unwilling to present, provides an opportunity for the consultant to establish effective rapport and, by adroitly pointing out the larger implications of his immediate problem, lead the instructor to an enriched conception of his over-all tasks.

Space considerations preclude the presentation here of the many instances which could be cited in support of the evident soundness and limited empirical validation of the operational procedures stated or implied above. It may be summarily stated, however, that these operational practices apparently have led to constantly increasing requests for the various specialized professional services of the Educational Advisory Staff. Furthermore, it is our distinct impression that these practices have been accompanied by an enhanced sense of professional security and enriched conceptions of teaching and learning on the part of the administrative and instructional staffs.

TENTATIVE APPRAISAL OF THREE EVALUATIVE TECHNIQUES

The above-described approach to the improvement of instruction has provided many opportunities for formal or informal appraisal of the basic assumption that it is possible to improve instruction by means of appropriate evaluative procedures. For

purposes of illustrating the types of appraisal to which this approach has been subjected, it is proposed here to appraise briefly three illustrative subassumptions that instruction can be improved by means of (1) improving objective test items, (2) improving the measurement of intangibles, and (3) utilizing student evaluations.

The philosophical justification for the belief that improving individual test items should result in improved instruction may be stated in a series of postulates, as follows:

1. It is impossible to plan effectively for the improvement of instruction except when such plans are based on careful and exact studies of the present successes and failures of instruction.

2. Teacher-made tests commonly constitute one of the most valid sources of data concerning the effectiveness of instruction.

3. The data concerning the successes and failures of instruction as revealed by teacher-made tests will be valid only in the proportion that the individual items comprising such tests are valid.

4. Concern by the instructor with the validity of individual items of a test tends in time to develop greater instructor concern relative to the appropriateness and clarity of the objectives of instruction and the appropriateness of the instructional procedures employed in attaining these objectives.

5. Thus, in practice, instructor concern about the improvement in the measurement of student learnings not only results in improved measurement of the efficiency of instruction *per se*; it tends also to promote improved objectives of instruction and improved instructional procedures.

A previous paper⁴ has presented considerable objective data showing a measurable and statistically significant improvement in objective test items as measured by increased validity coefficients and by an improved "functional content"⁵ of test items on successive tests in the same area of instruction. The writers have been equally impressed by certain subjective types of data

⁴ Greene, *op. cit.*

⁵ The emphasis on "functional content" consisted of attempts to develop test items of such a functional nature that successful performance by the examinee in the test situation could be assumed to correlate highly with his successful performance of military duties in a routine situation.

which appear to indicate that improved validity coefficients and improved functional content of test items usually have been paralleled by concomitant evidences of generally improved instructional practices. For example, increased validity coefficients have generally been accompanied by (a) increased "face validity" of tests; (b) enhanced student satisfaction with the "fairness" of tests; and (c) an increasingly critical and intelligent concern by both instructors and students relative to the appropriateness of the objectives of instruction and the appropriateness of the instructional procedures employed.

The objective and subjective data available have also led us to conclude that the emphasis on improving the functional content of examinations has not only resulted in a more valid appraisal of instruction *per se*, but it also has tended to improve the functional quality of instruction itself. Such a finding should occasion little surprise. Alert instructors have long known that students tend to "point" for tests and to distribute their study emphasis accordingly. It is perhaps not so commonly recognized that instructors likewise point for tests by consciously or unconsciously shaping the objectives and techniques of instruction in terms of the types of appraisals which they expect to make.

The special functions of the several schools in Air University are such as to place marked emphasis on various "intangible" learnings as important objectives of instruction. The payment of "lip service" to these intangible objectives is not an uncommon practice; however, since adequate appraisal of such objectives usually imposes many practical and technical difficulties, it is also a not-uncommon practice to neglect or omit these intangible outcomes in an evaluation program. In every facet of the above-described approach a deliberate attempt has been made to utilize the advisory, instructor-training and technical-service functions of the Educational Advisory Staff in insuring that these intangibles receive attention in the evaluation program in proportion to their importance.

Several types of evidence may be cited in support of the view that emphasis on the improved measurement of intangibles actually resulted in improved instruction. For example, the Cur-

riculum Planning Boards (made up of instructors with official responsibility for recommending curriculum revisions) have in many instances requested divisional heads and/or instructors to (a) restate their objectives of instruction to provide additional instruction better designed to result in the attainment of the given intangible objectives; (b) provide additional and improved hours of instruction pointed toward given intangible objectives. Also, individual instructors informally report that emphasis on the appraisal of intangible outcomes has resulted in a reconsideration of the general and specific purposes of particular units of instruction and in efforts to readjust instructional procedures in the light of these purposes. For example, there has been a marked shift in emphasis from stressing knowledge outcomes (often conceived of in terms of the mastery of isolated factual information) to a stressing of thought and judgment outcomes (conceived of as the ability to recognize problems, to analyze problems into their constituent parts, to locate and properly interpret significant data, and to arrive at valid conclusions). These changed value-judgments concerning the purposes of instruction usually have been accompanied by a decreasing emphasis on the lecture method and an increasing emphasis on the effective use of discussion and seminar procedures. The intangible interpersonal factors involved in staff work have been given increased emphasis as a result of effective evaluative procedures developed in the several schools.

The justification for utilizing student appraisals in the evaluation program of Air University rests on several considerations. Headquarters takes the official attitude that each student in Air University as a mature, career officer is actually or potentially interested in (a) personal and professional self-improvement through formal study, (b) improvement of the total instructional program of Air University. In this newly established educational agency it is found that the background of military training and experience of the student body typically approximates closely that of the instructional staff. Partly as a result of this circumstance (but also consonant with the philosophy of evaluation herein described), a corollary official attitude maintains that

the student, as the recipient of instruction, stands in a peculiarly strategic position to make functional and pertinent appraisals of general and specific aspects of the instructional program to which he is subjected. The extent to which, and certain procedures through which, this philosophy has been implemented in the various courses in Air University have been presented in a previous paper in this series.⁶

Although the supporting data will not here be cited, impressive evidence exists that these student appraisals of instruction have been and are being used by individual instructors and by faculty boards as one basis for significant revisions of instructional objectives and instructional procedures. In addition to the inherent validity of these student appraisals for purposes of improving the objectives and procedures of instruction as such, it is believed that the emphasis on student appraisals has equally important mental-hygiene implications. To be accorded the status and responsibility of partnership in a meaningful educational enterprise appears to facilitate a feeling of belongingness and identification on the part of students which promotes good general morale, harmonious student-faculty relationships, and effective learning. To provide a wholesome and useful outlet for the emotional tensions commonly incident to a rigorous program of military instruction is no mean attainment: in so doing also to release hitherto untapped reservoirs of energy and skill for purposes of improved instruction and enhanced personal adjustment constitutes outcomes the importance of which it is difficult to appraise fully.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CIVILIAN INSTITUTIONS

Although Air University's program of evaluation of instruction was initiated only recently and is still undergoing revision and expansion, experience to date would appear to have implications for civilian institutions of higher learning. It has been demonstrated that when properly approached and provided on a voluntary basis with advisory and technical assistance, the rela-

⁶ Greene, *op. cit.*

tively inexperienced and professionally untrained military instructors of Air University show remarkable interest and skill in improving their proficiency in the evaluation of instruction. Since many instructors in civilian institutions of higher learning likewise have had relatively little professional training in the evaluation of instruction, it seems reasonable to assume that these civilian instructors would show similar patterns of improved interest and skill in evaluating instruction if they were stimulated to do so through an alert and vigorous educational leadership. Such nominal leadership in many instances will need to be supplemented by special provisions for advisory and technical assistance. On many campuses there is undoubtedly an untapped reservoir of latent advisory and technical skill which imaginative supervisory officials should be able to utilize in the improvement of instruction by means of one or more of the evaluative emphases herein described, or by such other evaluative activities as might be uniquely appropriate to local conditions and needs.

It is not within the scope of this paper to suggest in specific detail the precise ways, if any, in which a particular civilian institution could inaugurate or expand its own approach to the improvement of instruction by means of emphasizing appropriate evaluative procedures. Such local planning obviously would need to take into account the tradition, personalities, facilities, and needs obtaining in the given local situation. However, it would seem likely that any centralized, campus-wide approach would likewise need, in terms of its own situation, to give consideration to (a) the development of a local, over-all philosophy concerning the role of evaluation in the improvement of instruction; (b) the structuring of the organization and functions of a particular local agency or agencies to serve as means to the end of improving instruction through appropriate evaluative procedures; (c) the development of a philosophy and pattern of operational procedures of such local agency or agencies so designed as to insure maximum functional efficiency of the evaluation program. The writers are impressed that an ill-conceived or maladroitly implemented program of evaluation might not simply fail to improve instruction in the amount or direction desired; because

of the direct and indirect pervasive and coercive influence which evaluative practices tend to exert upon instructional objectives and instructional procedures, such a program of evaluation actually might hinder, rather than improve, instruction. The fact that college instructors as a group often fail to recognize or admit a lack of competence in evaluation poses further difficulties in the application of ideas advanced here and underlines the importance of wise planning and strategy in introducing advisory service in evaluation with a view to improving instruction.

Colleges, Faculties, and Religion

An Appraisal of a Program of Faculty Consultations

By ALBERT C. OUTLER

HIGHER EDUCATION IN AMERICA is in process of an unparalleled expansion, and yet American educators are in a ferment of unparalleled discontent. Over the past decade, and even more intensively in the postwar years, we have had an unwearied and almost universal act of contrition from men and women in the American academic community as they have become acutely aware of the defects in the educational process in our society and for our times. A steady stream of reports and statements has analyzed these defects and prescribed for their remedy and repair. Few college administrations and faculties have been able or disposed to ignore or avoid this salutary mood of searching self-criticism, although in some instances it has seemed to be almost too easy to pronounce the general confession ("We have done those things which we ought not to have done and we have left undone those things which we ought to have done") and then forthwith to vote for curriculum changes which merely substitute new nostrums for old.

The Harvard report, *General Education in a Free Society*, stood as a landmark at an earlier stage of the discussion. The Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, *Higher Education for American Democracy*, is the most recent and the most representative major pronouncement. The papers and debate at the recent (September 1948) Ninth Annual Conference on Science, Philosophy, and Religion on "The Goals for Education," might be taken as a sample of the continuing discussion. These three studies and many others agree on one major premise: the traditional pattern of higher education in America is gravely deficient and must be reformed.

The particular counts on which this general judgment is based vary from report to report. But here, too, basic motifs are beginning to come clear. It is generally agreed that the older

education failed to provide men with a unified vision of life or an integrative focus for human knowledge. It failed adequately to stimulate deep and dynamic loyalties to humane and self-transcending values, intellectual or moral. It made for an atomization of life, for a fragmentation of knowledge, for a gross unbalance in the curriculum between the physical and social sciences on the one hand and the humanities on the other. College life in such an atmosphere became increasingly irrelevant to the storms and crises of the world's deepening tragedy. This irrelevance was usually one of two sorts: the *solemn* irrelevance of expert but uncoordinated knowledge or else the *trivial* irrelevance reflected in the popular connotation for the once-respected adjective "collegiate." In short, the generality of educators is willing to acknowledge that such a "liberal education" fulfilled neither of its implicit promises—to liberate and to educate.

Meanwhile, the full tide of a major revolution rolls on in American education. The postwar expansion of college populations has bulged dormitories, including Quonset villages and trailer camps, and has overtaxed classrooms, libraries, and faculties. Even though many individual schools have passed the peak of their overcrowding, the general trend of expansion is expected to continue. (If the goals of the President's Commission were met, we should have a near-doubling of our national college enrollment by 1960!) But even more significant changes are also afoot. Students, faculties, and administrations are in acknowledged quest for better patterns and procedures of education. There is a mounting criticism of the graduate schools where teachers are trained—trained well to learn, but not nearly so well to teach! Everywhere there has been an imperative demand for integrative curriculums and for educational goals which stress the importance of synoptic understanding and humane convictions as the prime marks of an educated man.

All of the new prescriptions stress this latter note: an adequate education is one which aids men to see human life and knowledge synoptically and which leads them to be loyal to the common human good, above and beyond *laissez faire* self-interest. As the likeliest resources for achieving these goals, great faith is

placed in the humanities and the social sciences, and these are enjoying a resurgence of emphasis and curricular favor. If a person can assimilate a good measure of the funded wisdom of the human past (now embodied mostly in the great books of literature and philosophy), and if he can learn to use, with an enlightened and humane conscience, the basic insights about man and society now afforded him by the social scientists, he is in a fair way to becoming a free man and a good citizen. And as this newly integrated, newly relevant educational pattern is extended more equitably throughout the whole of our society and thus made more truly democratic in character and spirit, the nation and the world will begin to reap the good harvest of critical intelligence dedicated to the common cause of personal fulfillment and social progress. These are the general lines of a fundamental agreement amongst our educational philosophers. The practical proposals for implementing these educational ideals exhibit considerable diversity and need not be debated or appraised here. Instead, it seems important to raise yet one more prior question for the educational philosopher: "In this new search for intellectual unity and ethical conviction in the educational process, has *religion* been seriously considered as a significant component in, or context for, good liberal education?" This would certainly seem an obvious possibility to anyone familiar with the history of educational theory in our civilization. And yet when one turns to the reports and statements for intelligent comment on the role and function of religion in a liberal education, the result is literally astonishing to those who have managed to retain their conviction that high religion (religious devotion to God's righteous rule in human lives) and sound learning (critical loyalty to truth as it may be served by exact knowledge and synoptic understanding) are not only compatible, but positively correlated. The Harvard report acknowledges that such a notion was once widely held, but goes on bluntly to assert that "whatever one's views, religion is not now for most colleges a practicable source of intellectual unity."¹

¹ *General Education in a Free Society* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1945), p. 39.

A little further on the committee, with a typical sensitivity to the claims of "open-mindedness," tries to mitigate the effect of such a sweeping negative. "We must perforce speak in purely humanistic terms [why "perforce"?] But we have been careful so to delimit humanism as not to exclude the religious ideal."² The President's Commission would appear to have agreed to treat religion as a not-very-live, but yet theoretically possible, option among the motive-forces for their chief desideratum—the democratic spirit.

To cooperate for common ends, we must have faith in each other.

Ethical principles that will induce this faith need not be based on any single sanction or be authoritarian in origin, nor need finality be claimed for them. Some persons will find the satisfactory basis for a moral code in the democratic creed itself, some in philosophy, some in religion. Religion is held [by whom?] to be a major force in creating this system of human values on which democracy is predicated, and many derive from one or another of its varieties a deepened sense of human worth and a strengthened concern for the rights of others.³

Thereafter, in the longest, most comprehensive and ambitious statement in the current discussion about higher education, the cloak of disparaging silence is drawn round the whole subject of the possibility of a religious orientation for a liberal education.

Let us add yet another, somewhat different, sort of testimony on this same point. A recent and very discerning study has been made of the status of religion in the books college students normally read as foundation texts in the general college curriculum (*College Reading and Religion: A Survey of College Reading Materials Sponsored by the Edward W. Hazen Foundation and the Committee on Religion and Education of the American Council on Education*). It is the unanimous report of careful observers that "religion is a neglected field of reading and study on the part of college students [and their teachers]."⁴ It is further agreed that "the lightness of touch and even ignorance

² *Ibid.*, p. 76.

³ *Higher Education for American Democracy, I: Establishing the Goals* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947; New York: Harper & Bros., 1948), 50.

⁴ *College Reading and Religion* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1948), p. x.

with which intellectual issues having a religious bearing or import are dealt with [in these representative college texts] would seem little less than astonishing when the expansion of scholarship in general is taken into account."⁵

One conclusion about the educational revolution, therefore, is clear. Education is by way of being reformed with little or no regard for the possible contribution of religion to its reformation. For a very tangled skein of reasons it has come to pass that in the name of tolerance and the democratic spirit American educators—whatever their private religious beliefs and convictions—have in fact suppressed the consideration of the problems of the religious interpretation of reality and human existence in the educational process. Such matters, so the student is told by precept and example, are private affairs, which are entitled to mutual respect, but about which there ought to be no unseemly disputing, such as would be involved if they were to be submitted to critical examination and discussion. Even so, it is not at all uncommon to hear religion sneered at and dispraised—without critical examination and discussion—by professors hostile to it. Academic men do have convictions and they do not shrink from controversy; but when religious questions are called, only the secularists, it would seem in the present instance, are prepared to cast their vote with full clarity and assurance. Thus, it has come about that in the practical outcome religion and the religious life-view have been effectually discounted and made to appear at the very most an accessory, but not an essential, component of the good life. Spurred by the twin fears of sectarian bias and indoctrination (wholesome fears when not phobic!), we have actually promoted religious indifferentism and have given aid to a militant secularism—of the genral sort extolled by John Dewey in *A Common Faith*—in our academic communities and in the larger society in which they exist. And thus it has happened that the secularists have won their most striking victory in over a century. "The democratic creed itself"—the lowest common denominator of

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. x (in Dean Donald P. Cottrell's introduction to the report).

all liberal educational philosophies, including those with religious context—now becomes the highest common multiple of the new educational reform. The revolt against dogma has now become official dogma itself.

It is interesting that in the face of this situation reliable studies of the religious attitude and interest amongst college students (such as *The Religion of the Postwar College Student*⁹ by Gordon W. Allport, James M. Gillespie, and Jacqueline Young) as well as multiple-opinion polls among the general population (see Allport's chapter in *College Reading and Religion*¹⁰) regularly show a continuing interest in religious questions and the continuing vitality of the claims of religion to truth and power. The groups to be educated in America are by no means as indifferent to religious problems as the group which proposes to educate them.

Nor is it true that this apparent agreement amongst the professional philosophers of education reveals the whole truth about the opinions and attitudes toward religion in the faculties and administrations of American colleges and universities. A sizable and growing number of American intellectuals, deeply interested in liberal education at its best, have long maintained the firm conviction that high religion is the best and most adequate context for the soundest education. There are many who believe a religious world-view supplies both the intellectual unity and the ethical motivation for intelligent and humane living. One of the most important of the groups representing this viewpoint has been the National Council on Religion in Higher Education. It was founded by Professor Charles Foster Kent of Yale in 1922 to support the conviction "that every college and university should provide satisfactory opportunities for the study of religion as an academic subject of fundamental importance and for the practice of religion as a basic element in the good life." Over the past quarter-century the council has recruited exceptionally gifted prospective teachers and has provided them

⁹ *The Journal of Psychology*, 1948, pp. 25-33; also published as a separate pamphlet, Provincetown, Mass.: The Journal Press, 1948.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 85ff.

with Kent Fellowships for graduate study not only in religion but also in all the other fields of the university curriculum. It is quite impossible to dismiss the religious interest of the council membership as "sectarian," "dogmatic," "anti-intellectual"; a cursory check of its membership will show an extraordinary range of interests and positions represented. The council has likewise had allies in its concern. The American Council on Education, through its Committee on Religion and Education, has been actively studying this whole problem. Likewise, the Edward W. Hazen Foundation, with its various programs and conferences, publications, and student counseling, has also been widely effective in maintaining a high level of discussion of the problem both of religion and of education.

In 1945 a program of faculty consultations on religion in higher education was developed under the joint sponsorship of the American Council on Education, the Edward W. Hazen Foundation, and the National Council on Religion in Higher Education. A steering committee was appointed and the program of visitation launched. An excellent preliminary report on the original design of the program and on its first year of functioning has been prepared by President John W. Nason, of Swarthmore College.⁸ By 1948 a total of fifty-three consultations had been held in twenty-nine states by sixteen consultants. Of these, twenty-nine were held in private institutions (twenty-one in smaller liberal arts colleges and eight in larger universities), ten in state or municipal institutions, nine in church-related institutions, two in teachers colleges, one in a technical school, and two in junior colleges.⁹

The typical consultation consisted of a personal visit by an established scholar and teacher to a campus upon the invitation of the administration and a faculty committee of the college or university. The consultant usually spoke to the general faculty on some aspect of the general theme of religion in

⁸ Nason, "Religion in Higher Education," *EDUCATIONAL RECORD*, XXVII (1946), 412-21.

⁹ See the last section of this article for a list of the institutions visited and the names of the consultants.

higher education and thereafter joined a series of smaller groups of faculty and administrators for prolonged discussion of the implications of his general thesis. Usually an interview with a representative student group was included, and, infrequently, an address in the college chapel. The average visit lasted three days.

The frank purpose of these consultations was exploratory. It seemed important to find out what was being done to make religion a live intellectual option on representative campuses; to discover and appraise faculty and administrative reaction to a competent presentation of the case for a religious context for liberal education; to launch preliminary discussion with interested parties as to ways and means of making religion a more vital factor in the educational process and in the life of the academic community. It seemed a useful experiment to try to determine the extent to which a fair sample of American educators could be interested in the claims of high religion as a rightful part of good education. The consultants were all men who were themselves ardently devoted to the cause of educational reform and the readaptation of higher education to the crisis of our times. They spoke to the educators as educators and always, first of all, in the name of sound learning and good citizenship. In almost every case they encountered an initial suspicion that this was merely special pleading, but, again, in almost every case it was possible to convince the majority of each faculty group that here was a serious attempt to understand and to interpret the intellectual enterprise itself in at least one of its most important possible contexts. Although there was an actual diversity among the consultants in respect to their own religious opinion, there was a common mind among them as to the crucial significance of a religious life-view in the search for intellectual unity and in training for responsible citizenship. They all undertook to challenge the tacit hegemony of secularism and "scientism" in current educational philosophy and to urge various versions of the general thesis that the surest and most dynamic basis for rational endeavor and democratic living is to be found in the Judaeo-Christian tradition at its

best and in its more contemporary (as contrasted with its more archaic) forms. In the smaller group discussions the chief questions usually turned on *how* religion, so conceived, might serve as a supporting medium for the study and teaching of the sciences, the social studies, and the humanities. After each consultation careful reports by consultants and faculty committees were submitted to the steering committee of the project. These reports are uncommonly interesting and support some rather striking and important general observations.

The fifty-three campuses visited represent, among them, almost every type of American academic community (the most obvious excepted type was the sort represented by Harvard, Chicago, or Columbia; yet five of the consultants were from Princeton and Yale, where newly organized departments of religion are actively implementing the aims of the consultation program). Within this wide range of "sample observations" one finds an inevitable diversity of reaction to the consultations and among the consultants. Nevertheless, it was observed that in almost every instance the intellectual atmosphere of the college visited was heavily influenced by a pervasive secularist and positivistic standpoint. The following is a typical comment:

The reaction against the older forms of indoctrination and the liberal's vivid fear of fanaticism have actually led to what has been, in effect, propaganda for secularism, and this has been more influential and pervasive than many of them [the faculty] had ever realized. There is a real interest in religion at ———, but this interest is largely unformed and uninstructed. The result is that a great tradition and a great opportunity have, up until quite recently, been wasted.

The consultants comment frequently on "the lack of intellectual and moral unity in the university as a whole." Most colleges, even the small ones, are afflicted with "departmental parochialism" and an unwholesome "intellectual insularity" separating faculty by fields. In a few church-related colleges, "religion plays an essential part in the life of the college." One state-supported institution was reported to be "more hospitable to religion than some private or even church-related

colleges or universities." Of one excellent small college it was said, "If every private institution of higher education were in as healthy a condition, our program would have very little to do." But far more numerous and typical were such comments as, "The discussion of religion reflected a limited understanding of the place of religious thinking in the determination of general educational policy, and their general philosophy of education seemed quite secular." Of yet another good college it was commented that, "There is no hostility to religion, yet no very live ideas about it. Most people felt that there were no important issues in religion to discuss critically."

On the whole, presidents and administrative officers were "initially more hospitable to the development of a religious program than were the majority of the faculty." Often this was because of "sincere personal conviction" and "genuine concern"; occasionally an enthusiastic administration pushed the cause more forcibly than the consultant was inclined to do. (One consultant made a sage observation that most trustees prefer as presidents "individuals who represent all of the solid and respectable virtues which society admires but does not always practice.") However, there were many administrations "polite but indifferent." The vast majority of administrative officers, whether favorable or lukewarm, were unclear as to the development of a religious perspective and attitude which might pervade the educational process. Many consultants commented unhappily about the apparent lack of really mutual relations between administration and faculty and between administration and students. Several of them reported their efforts to call attention to the fact that a democratic atmosphere in offices, classrooms, and commons was an important contribution to the growth of a religious attitude in the academic community.

The consultants are surprised more often than they should have been at the naïveté of faculty members in religious matters. Both those who declared themselves "hostile" or "neutral" to religion revealed the most archaic and regressive notions about the contemporary religious situation and the intellectual

temper of modern liberal Christianity and Judaism. Most of them seem to rely on garbled childhood memories to tell them what religion is, and their familiarity with the literature and living spokesmen of liberal religion was strangely scant for cultivated and intelligent people. Occasionally faculty members denounced religion as "superstition," "prescientific benightedness," and "an emotional crutch," "both useless and dangerous." A larger group was convinced that a humanistic or naturalistic creed was wholly adequate for a modern man. This conviction was balanced by about an equal number of devout, well-instructed churchmen who maintained their private ground but often chose to remain silent in public meetings. But the largest group of all were "just confused." "They are prepared to acknowledge some responsibility for the religious conviction of their students, but they just don't know how to go about it."

Most of the campuses visited would have to be rated as superior in their academic quality. It is, therefore, natural that the consultants agreed that this sample of colleges "generally do a good job of training the intellect, but neglect the task of educating the whole man." Of one place it was said, "The sense of human brotherhood and Christian ethics actually pervading the campus was strong, indeed stronger than I have found on any other campus." Of another, "There's an overt friendliness to religion, but a feeling that it's someone else's job." More typical, though, is a comment like this: "I got a very favorable impression of the quality of students there and I am convinced that ———— does a superb teaching job as far as factual training and single-discipline specialization can suffice."

Everywhere the consultants inquired about the form and quality of the curricular offerings in religion. Their most frequent conclusion was that such courses "are good in quality but inadequate in scope." In this part of the discussion the fear of "sectarian bias" was especially pronounced. "The faculty at ———— is sympathetic to the study of religion, but afraid that it would be difficult or impossible to maintain the necessary objectivity in presenting the subject for the obvious reason

that anyone who cares to teach religion probably has some religious convictions of his own. These might become plain to students and influence them unduly." (Whether an economist's convictions about controversial issues in economics would similarly stultify his "objectivity," deponent saith not!) Everywhere there is need, according to the consultants, for carefully planned courses in religion; at many places more courses or expanded staff are indicated.

The teachers of religion in the colleges visited were generally reported to be "well-trained and competent." In some instances they were judged to be "less than adequate" and "confused as to aims and procedures." It was generally agreed that too much was expected of them; they often have to combine the direction of "campus religious activities" with their teaching, often have to teach an impossible gamut of subjects. One thing that this investigation has made plain is that even if offerings and faculty in religion were greatly expanded, administrations would be hard put to it to find enough adequately trained personnel.

Most of the colleges visited made some sort of provision for the religious activity of the students. But none was judged adequate for the real need that exists. In only two or three colleges was "the coordination of religion in curricular and extracurricular activities functioning well." Where compulsory chapel services were held, they were reported to be usually "resented by students" and "contemned by faculty." Several consultants commented on what might have been observed by all: the urgent need for religious counseling of students on every campus. The average student with religious problems or questions has no adequate resources in dealing with them either in himself or in the too-remote, too-meager contacts he has with the too few on the average faculty who might help him. Denied fruitful resolution of his problems, his religious growth is often arrested or distorted.

For all their critical judgments, however, the over-all prognosis of the situation, as reported by the consultants, is strikingly

hopeful. Reflection upon the consultation program has made them feel that there is real vitality, intellectual and moral, in American colleges, and this within and in spite of the confusion and disorder of the typical educational process. Nor does the apparent victory of the secularists stand unchallenged. The devotedly religious among faculties and student bodies are taking heart and speaking out, and the hitherto "neutral majority" is developing increasing interest in, and understanding of, the great religious issues of life. Everywhere the consultants came to feel what is chiefly needed is that the case for religion *be given a fair hearing* in the open forum of academic discussion. It is the firm agreement of the consultants that where this is done there is usually a vigorous and generally favorable reaction from both faculty and students.

This particular experiment in exploration and challenge has been completed. The question of effective follow-up and next steps is still being discussed and no official recommendations have yet been made. From the findings of the program, however, several new projects are being developed which will reinforce and extend the general effort to confront American educators with their responsibility toward religion in liberal education. This is a continuing, imperative task.

Incomplete and fragmentary as it was, this consultation program seems to have marked out at least five rather firm conclusions:

1. A case can be made for religion as a crucial factor in liberal education which will be generally acknowledged as an intelligible and intellectually respectable education theory.
2. No curriculum which ignores or suppresses a competent and critical examination of the history and literature of the Judaeo-Christian religious tradition can fairly be called either "liberal" or "general."
3. The secularists have no monopoly on intelligent concern for truth and human values, and their loudly proclaimed preference for "the democratic creed itself" is, in fact, a rival creed and metaphysics which deserves, in any liberal education, to be

examined on its merits alongside the chief alternatives and not covertly imposed as an arbitrary dogmatism under the ambiguous constitutional concept of "separation of church and state."

4. Modern college students respond eagerly to the chance for a firsthand investigation of the truth claims of high religion presented by competent scholars who themselves have firm religious convictions, and yet who eschew the impulse to impose these convictions dogmatically.

5. It will be a major tragedy of contemporary education and of the society which it seeks to serve if the cause of religion in higher education goes by default or fails because of the capture of the higher education by implacable and doctrinaire secularists. This need not happen. The evidence accumulates that the influence of liberal religious attitudes and ideas is *waxing* in American academic life.

FACULTY CONSULTATIONS ON RELIGION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

PROGRAM SUMMARY, 1945-48

Institution Visited	Consultant
<i>Pacific Coast and Mountain Area</i> (7 consultations)	
1945-46	
Mills College	Theodore M. Greene
Occidental College	" " "
Pasadena Junior College	" " "
Pomona-Scripps Colleges	" " "
Reed College	" " "
University of Oregon	" " "
1947-48	
University of Colorado	Walter M. Muelder
<i>Central States</i> (13 consultations)	
1945-46	
Beloit College	George F. Thomas
Denison University	" " "
Lawrence College	Edwin E. Aubrey
Rockford College	" " "
University of Iowa	George F. Thomas

1946-47

Albion College	David E. Roberts
Ball State Teachers College	F. Ernest Johnson
Carleton College	John W. Nason
Cornell College	David E. Roberts
DePauw University	Walter M. Horton
Ohio Wesleyan University	Edwin E. Aubrey

1947-48

Manchester College	William A. Christian
Stephens College	David E. Roberts

Southern States
(11 consultations)

1946-47

Agnes Scott College	Albert C. Outler
Atlanta University	Theodore M. Greene
Dillard University	Walter M. Muclider
Southwestern College	Albert C. Outler
Talladega College	Walter M. Horton
University of Florida	Christian Gauss
Washington & Lee University	William A. Christian
Virginia Union University	Christian Gauss

1947-48

Fisk University	David E. Roberts
University of Louisville	" " "
University of Tennessee	Edwin E. Aubrey

Middle Atlantic States
(13 consultations)

1945-46

Bryn Mawr College	George F. Thomas
Cornell University	William E. Hocking
Carnegie Institute of Technology	George F. Thomas
Syracuse University	" " "

1946-47

Colgate University	Albert C. Outler
Goucher College	Theodore M. Greene
University of Rochester	Willard L. Sperry

1947-48

Bethany College	John C. Schroeder
Bucknell University	David E. Roberts
Cheyney Training School	F. Ernest Johnson
Haverford College	Victor L. Butterfield
Lehigh University	Edwin E. Aubrey
New Jersey College for Women	Christian Gauss

New England States

(9 consultations)

1945-46

Brown University	William E. Hocking
Dartmouth College	Edwin E. Aubrey
Wesleyan University	George F. Thomas

1946-47

Bowdoin College	Victor L. Butterfield
Smith College	George F. Thomas

1947-48

Amherst College	Albert C. Outler
Bates College	Christian Gauss
University of Maine	Howard M. Jefferson
University of Vermont	Walter M. Muelder

Leadership Training through Group Experiences¹

By RUTH STRANG

UNDERSTANDING CHILDREN and young people underlies counseling, group work, curriculum-building, and instruction. In counseling, the worker must understand individuals in order to help them to understand themselves and develop their potentialities. In group work, the effective leader understands the individual members and the interaction that takes place among them. In modifying the curriculum, teachers and administrators begin their study with these questions: What do we need to know about pupils? How can we get this information? How can we use it to provide the experiences they need? More leadership in helping parents, teachers, and counselors to understand children and young people should be developed.

Leadership training may be given indirectly through experiences which in themselves are valuable to every member of the group. Clinics and consultation centers may widen their influence through their in-service education of counselors and teachers who work with individuals referred to them for help. Members of study groups, who have made some progress in understanding children and young people, are able to go out as leaders of new groups. Thus, the process of learning to understand people spreads in ever-widening circles.

One way this works was described by T. H. Owen Knight. In Montgomery County, Maryland, Dr. Daniel Prescott has developed a program of child study leading to better understanding of human beings. Simply stated, Mr. Knight said the assumptions underlying this program are that (1) every child

¹ Synthesis of the autumn luncheon-forum of Youth-Serving Agencies, sponsored by the Washington Council of the Alliance for Guidance of Rural Youth on the subject "Helping Teachers and Parents Understand Young People." The three speakers on the panel were T. H. Owen Knight, supervisor of pupil personnel, Montgomery County, Maryland, Public Schools; Lucien Adams, coordinator of Guidance and Consultation Service, State Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia; and Jane Franseth, specialist for rural schools, U.S. Office of Education.

is different and unique, and (2) there are causes in back of a child's behavior that can be understood, or, in other words, it is possible to understand what makes children behave as they do.

The program of child study started in the county four years ago as an in-service training program for teachers. During these years between 55 and 65 percent of the teachers of the county have participated in the program, on a voluntary basis, on their own time. In their study they have chosen individual children and have tried to develop techniques for finding out how each child was different from others. They have often spent a full year simply learning how to observe the child and understanding the forces, including his interaction with other persons, that make a child behave as he does.

After they have developed these techniques of observing the child in his environment, they are ready to set up hypotheses as to the causes of behavior and use a laboratory technique in proving or disproving hypotheses that they have set up.

Mr. Knight continued:

Three years ago, a group of parents heard that the teachers of the county were engaged in a program of child study. They asked more about this program. Then they said, "Well, if teachers, with all their training, need to learn ways to understand children better, why wouldn't it be possible for parents to have similar child-study programs that would help them to understand children better?"

A few years ago we might have thought otherwise, but why wouldn't it be possible? We had to give them a chance to organize parent-child study groups, and they have.

It has been ten years since I was teaching classes in child psychology to parents in an adult-education program. I used an academic approach and procedure. This type of textbook study seemed to satisfy the parents tremendously; at least they learned some new words to add to their vocabulary, but that is about all it amounted to. Now we have study groups in distinction from instruction groups.

It is common for a parent to come to the group with specific problems which he wants the leader or the group to solve. A parent will ask questions such as: "How can I make my child get up and get to school on time in the morning?" "What should I do—my child is still bed-wetting?" They look for answers

and remedies and are disappointed when they find that the study group does not give the answers.

The study groups should start out with the idea that they can learn to understand children, even though the members are untrained and some of them have had little education. Regardless of their educational background they have found that they can set up a study group and find out some of the causes of human behavior. They grow in their ability to recognize that there are many reasons in back of a child's behavior. As they try to understand him, they are able to help the child a little more.

At the same time that they are studying the behavior of their own children, they are learning about themselves and are developing a technique of working with people. Out of this experience grow certain fundamental concepts and sensitivity to some of the forces that are operating in human behavior and that should be taken into consideration. They do not get the idea that they have become specialists who can diagnose and treat behavior problems. Their attitude is best expressed by a comment one parent made in an attempt to evaluate the program, "Well, I don't believe I understand my child any better, but I will say this: He has a right to be understood."

The parents themselves have carried on the program with very little help. They have their own group leaders. These leaders have previously been members of a study group. As leaders they meet with Mr. Knight every two weeks to become more proficient in study-group procedures. They learn how to keep a discussion going in the direction that the group wants it to go.

A few fathers participate. One of the most interesting groups is that in which both mothers and fathers talk back and forth about the causes of behavior. Mr. Knight said they had had more success with parents of elementary school children than with study groups on the high school level. Actually, however, a number of parents in every group have children of preschool, elementary, and high school ages. Joint study groups of parents and teachers have been discouraged because of the possible inhibiting effect on the parents of the teacher who to them represents an expert or a person in authority.

Parents have been informed about, but not urged to attend, these study groups. Last year in the county there were between twenty-five and thirty parent study groups, each with its own leader and meeting once every two weeks. In answer to the question, "What is the procedure for getting into the study groups the parents who need this experience most?" Mr. Knight replied,

We do not succeed in getting into these groups the parents who really need the experience most, but we do succeed in getting into the groups parents who need it a great deal. Every P.T.A. of the county has a parent study chairman, and they plan lectures and let parents know about the study groups. For example, last year Dr. Prescott gave an overview lecture to three or four hundred parents. As parents participate in the study groups and get satisfaction from them, they spread the word to others, and more parents join. One school ran its whole P.T.A. program as parent study groups, in place of any other kinds of meetings. After the general business meeting, they broke up into small study groups. At the same time, the school was carrying on the more intensive child-study program. To try to sell the idea more aggressively, I think would defeat the program.

For more intensive study, a workshop for the leaders, starting at 9:30 A.M. and continuing until 1:00 or 2:30 P.M., was held for one week. This workshop was attended by 113 parents. They listened to lectures which gave them more background in child development and child study and spent the afternoon in practice sessions. When 113 parents voluntarily leave their homes for a week to get this additional help, it is evident that these study groups mean much to them.

During the three to four years that teachers and parents have been engaged in this study program, they have developed some fundamental concepts: that each individual is unique, that the causes of behavior are complex and interrelated, and that personality is continually growing and changing. This understanding of human beings in general leads to a better feeling toward their own children and toward other persons. They have been helped to use the resources within themselves to understand children and to help them grow in their own best way.

Another type of combined service and leadership training

program is the Consultation Service, State Department of Education, described by Lucien Adams. Originally started in 1939 as a joint project of the National Youth Administration, the Virginia Employment Service, and the State Department of Education, it is now the sole responsibility of the State Department of Education. To date, four of the seven Consultation Service centers, recommended by two evaluation committees, have been established in the state.

This Consultation Service, Mr. Adams stated, has two main purposes: to provide adequate vocational guidance for out-of-school youth, and to provide assistance to schools in the development of adequate guidance programs.

Another feature of the Consultation Service centers is the opportunity for summer experiences they provide for counselors and for teachers who expect to do some counseling. These counselors-in-training have opportunity to observe the procedures employed in the Consultation Service—testing, interviewing, participating in the case conference in which the data collected are synthesized and interpreted, writing the case study, and making a follow-up study of the individual's adjustment. These summer programs were offered for two years, and representatives from a number of schools in the state attended. Teachers and school administrators felt that their guidance programs had been aided more by this experience than by the theoretical college course in guidance.

Taking a cue from the favorable reaction to the Consultation Service center as a method of in-service education, Mr. Adams and his associates have developed guidance clinics in connection with colleges in the state. Counselors and teachers who are concerned with working with young people get actual experience in counseling in these centers. They administer and score tests, interpret test results, analyze other information about the individual, and write case studies. They also obtain practice and instruction in methods of studying occupations. They can immediately use this actual experience in the vocational guidance of pupils in their own schools.

Mr. Adams then described this program in more detail. Enrollment in the training group is limited to ten counselors,

who are supervised by about three persons. Youngsters in the schools of the area apply for this service. They are invited to bring any kind of problem to the counselors. The director of the program serves as the intake interviewer, gets an idea of the young person's problems, and refers him to a counselor. The counselor gives him a registration form to fill in, which supplies certain background information. This is usually followed by an interest test and then the first interview with the counselor. The counselor writes up the interview in detail, in the form of a case summary including information on the health, appearance, and personality of the individual, his home situation, school record, school and work experience, leisure activities, ability, interests, educational and vocational plans, and other information that seems to be significant.

Following the interview, a testing program is set up for the counselee, and this information is added to the interview summary. At the staff conference, the counselor, the person doing the testing, the director of the center, usually one other member of the staff, and frequently teachers, parents, and principals discuss the case and help the counselor to prepare for his second interview with the young person. In this interview the counselor tries to help the individual to know himself better, to recognize his potentialities, and to make plans for realizing them. This is the general procedure developed in the Vocational Advisory Service of New York City.

The use of this service as a method of in-service education in counseling has received favorable comments from school people taking the training and from pupils and parents.

In rural areas the service has been organized on a county basis. Part or all of the staff of one of the Consultation Service centers has gone into a county and worked with principals, counselors, and pupils in the field. Thus, the school people have a chance to work with their own pupils in their own schools.

The plan is not without drawbacks. In the first place, it is expensive. And even with the fairly large staff, it is possible to reach only a small number of the counselors, teachers, and principals of the state as a whole. Mr. Adams would like to expand

this combination training and service program so that it will reach more people.

This program is an example of how a clinic or a consultation service can be used as a means of training counselors, teachers, and principals. Thus, the service to pupils in the schools is extended through the persons who are trained in connection with the particular youngsters who come to the center.

The kind of leadership that should be developed on a national scale was described by Jane Franseth. The concept of leadership, she said, has changed considerably. The effectiveness of one's leadership used to be measured by the leader's success in getting others to fall in line. According to the modern view, leadership is a process that helps to release the creative energies of the people so that they can do their best for the welfare of all. Since everybody has some capacity for leadership, the problem is not so much to develop leaders as to develop the process of leadership in all sorts of people.

What are the results of this kind of leadership in the schools? Using an excerpt from a letter prepared by a pupil, Stephen M. Corey illustrated the older kind of leadership in which the teacher tries to get children to do what she thinks ought to be done:

I don't know why the teachers don't like me. They never have very much. Seems like they don't think you know anything unless you can name the book it comes out of. I've got a lot of books in my own room at home . . . books like *Popular Science*, *Mechanical Encyclopedia*, and Sears' and Ward's catalogues, but I don't very often just sit down and read them through like they make us do in school. I use my books when I want to find something out, like when Mom buys anything second-hand I look it up in Sears' and Ward's first and tell her if she's getting stung or not.

I can use the index in a hurry to find the things I want. In school, though, we've got to learn whatever is in the books, and I just can't memorize the stuff. Last year I stayed after school every night for two weeks trying to learn the names of the Presidents. Of course, I knew some of them, like Washington, and Jefferson, and Lincoln, but there must have been thirty altogether and I never did get them straight. I'm not too sorry though because the kids who learned the Presidents had to turn right around and learn all the Vice Presidents.

I'm taking seventh grade over but our teacher this year isn't so interested in the names of the Presidents. She has us trying to learn the names of all the great inventors. The kids seem interested.

I guess I just can't remember names in history. Anyway, this year, I've been trying to learn about trucks because my uncle owns three and he says I can drive one when I'm sixteen. I already know the horse power and number of forward and backward speeds of twenty-six American trucks, some of the Diesel works. I started to tell my teacher about it last Wednesday in science class when the pump we were using to make a vacuum in a bell jar got hot, but she said she didn't see what a Diesel engine had to do with our experiment on air pressure, so I just kept still. The kids seemed interested though. I took four of them around to my uncle's garage after school and we saw the mechanic, Gus, tearing a big Diesel truck down. Boy, does he know his stuff. . . .

Even in shop I don't get very good grades. All us kids made a broom holder and a bookend this term and mine were sloppy. I just couldn't get interested. Mom doesn't use a broom any more with her new vacuum cleaner and all our books are in a book-case with glass doors in the parlor. Anyway, I wanted to make an end-gate for uncle's trailer but the shop teacher said that meant using metal and wood both and I'd have to learn how to work with wood first. I didn't see why, but I kept still and made a tie rack at school and the tail gate after school at my uncle's garage. He said I saved him \$10.

The teacher represented in this quotation is the old type of leader—one who makes every member of the group fall in line with her preconceived ideas. The teacher with the modern view of leadership will be concerned with the progress a pupil has made—what he has accomplished. Such a teacher will help unify a group working toward the solution of common problems. The approach is positive. Under this kind of leadership pupils feel that they belong to a group. They will learn more rapidly and effectively. They will achieve up to their ability. One study of children's worries showed that children worry most about failure, while teachers felt that the children had not worried enough about it. The mental attitude of these pupils improved under the kind of leadership that provided more situations in which each one could succeed.

Teachers, as well as pupils, need to be respected, loved, and

appreciated. Under these conditions they will do their best work. Anything, Miss Franseth said, that helps pupils or teachers feel that they belong and are appreciated releases their creative energies so that they will want to do and can do a better job.

This kind of leadership is resourceful. The leader should be a reservoir of good ideas from which pupils can draw when they have exhausted their own resources. Classes become laboratories instead of "sitting-rooms." The children are working on real problems such as specific problems of school and community health. They often work in groups. Teachers have worked with the pupils to make their rooms more attractive. The walls are painted clear, light colors instead of a drab tan or brown. There are attractive reading corners that invite children to read. Science corners and art corners offer opportunities for children having these special interests. In these centers or laboratories children may write poetry, make original paintings, and explore in the field of science. From observation alone, one can see the influence of different kinds of teacher leadership.

Miss Franseth went on to discuss a third question: How can this desirable kind of leadership be developed? The method of child-study groups has already been described. These child-development programs are under way in a number of states. A superintendent in Louisiana said that this program of child study has done more than anything else to improve the teacher as a leader whose relationship with children is based on an understanding of them. One bit of evidence in support of this statement is that rarely do parents whose children have teachers who have been members of the study groups ask that their children be transferred to another classroom. These teachers know more about their pupils and understand what makes them feel that they belong and that they are making progress.

Another method is the consultant type of supervision. Improvement of supervision in some areas throughout the United States is being achieved by providing prospective supervisors with many guided experiences—on the campus and in the field—in child development, in planning curriculums with reference to

community problems and children's problems, and in cooperative planning toward the solution of common problems.

On the international level, a conference was held at Prague last summer, a program of child study sponsored by UNESCO, which will probably have influence in many countries for years to come.

The new type of leadership training emphasizes understanding the individual and improving human relations. A better understanding of children and young people is possible. Through objective observation plus interpretation, teachers and parents can gain insight into the multiple causes of behavior and the forces operating to make an individual behave as he does. Members of the study groups approach the problem with an inquiring mind. Gradually, from the discussion of their observations and experiences, they develop for themselves fundamental concepts of child development. They show initiative and take responsibility for the child-study process, evolving it to meet their particular needs. They recognize the child's right to be understood. They develop a technique of working with other people. Helping teachers and parents to use the resources within themselves is one of the most effective methods of leadership training. A second method is supervision with the guidance emphasis. A third method is the use of a clinic or consultation service as a center for the in-service education of principals, teachers, and counselors.

These kinds of leadership training are effective on all levels—with teachers and parents who work directly with children and young people, with counselors doing more specialized guidance work and with consultants and resource persons who work with local leaders of groups.

The aim of leadership training is to develop leadership qualities in every member of the group. Of primary importance is ability to understand other people, to get into their world, to help them succeed, to release their creative energies, and to create in every member a sense of belonging to the group, and of being of worth.

Basic Courses in General Education¹

With Special Reference to the Humanities Course

By ROY IVAN JOHNSON

IT IS ENTIRELY POSSIBLE that in our preoccupation with method in education we have at times been content with neat patterns of procedures, while we have been relatively unconcerned with the kind of human product that is shaped by our labors. Said Herbert Spencer, "To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge; and the only rational mode of judging an educational course is to judge in what degree it discharges such function." These words are as fully charged with wisdom and common sense today as they were when they were uttered. Our focus must be broad enough to include the end as well as the means. We must be sure of the goal as well as the ground under our feet. We must have a sense of direction as well as a sense of motion.

In spite of the soundness of this principle, we are frequently guilty of "borrowing" methods without relating them clearly to our own purposes and without evaluating their effectiveness in terms of end results. It is a short step from this type of logic to the experimental method in education, for the experimental method simply seeks to discover better ways of doing the job. All procedures, all instructional techniques, all organizational patterns must be considered "on trial" until they have proved their value—or until methods have been developed that promise greater value. The ingenuity of the teacher and the administrator is constantly challenged. They are on the alert for better ways to achieve better results. Thus, improvement becomes a continuing function of any experimentally minded school.

One argument against "borrowing" too readily a pattern of organization that seems to work in another institution is that schools, like people, have their own individual characteristics and needs. No college is, or should be, the duplicate of another.

¹This article is based on an address given before the Missouri Association of Junior Colleges, December 1948.

They may be activated, in the main, by the same principles and the same beliefs in the values of education. But the human equation, which is always a part of every personnel situation, colors the emphases of the instructional program. Its background of tradition makes the institution more receptive to some innovations than to others. Institutional objectives, while they may be similar, are seldom identical. Many schools limit their scope to certain functions that they feel themselves best prepared to perform. Therefore, the best road to self-improvement in an institutional program is the road of self-effort—the development, through faculty and administrative cooperation, of the types of courses and procedures that are consonant with the individuality and the integrity of the institution. If a cloak of learning is borrowed from the wardrobe of college practices, the borrower must be prepared to alter it here and there if he wants a good fit.

If one is to be his own designer and builder in perfecting the structure of general education, where is the right place to begin? Undoubtedly, the first essential is a clear definition or understanding of the expected, or desired, outcomes of general education. Fortunately, educators are coming into closer agreement with respect to the nature of these objectives—particularly with respect to the areas of experience in which, or through which, the objectives are to be achieved. In the official report of the National Conference on Higher Education for 1947 the following abilities, or attainments, were enumerated as a kind of “definition” of the educated person: effective communication, intellectual curiosity and judgment, a sense of ethical and moral values, physical and mental health, preparation for family responsibility, better international understandings, better democratic citizenship, vocational adjustment, understanding of science and its relation to modern life, increased aesthetic appreciations and satisfactions. A shorter list may be presented, but most of the items mentioned would be subsumed, by implication, under broader headings.

Note that these objectives suggest immediately certain large subject-matter areas—particularly the humanities, social studies, and science—with groupings of individual subjects and related

courses in each area. Most colleges, even though they may retain the departmental system, recognize the importance of some kind of integrated program within these larger areas. To achieve this integration within the normal span of college experience many methods have been tried: a required sequence of related courses which would insure a sampling of the various fields of knowledge; a battery of orientation courses, or survey courses, which serve as an "introduction" to the broader areas of study; the development of basic general education courses, scholarly in character but selective in content, which emphasize the relation of knowledge in a given area to human problems and human experience.

I offer it as my firm conviction that no organizational method of achieving the objectives of education is so important as the attitudes and understandings that motivate the faculty who teach the courses. If the teacher is interested in what happens to his students, if he envisions the outcomes of education in terms of human behavior, if he measures the value of his own teaching by what it does to or for the student, most of the goals of general education will be in some measure achieved. In this kind of enlightened teaching no opportunity is lost to relate the disciplines of the subject to the problems of the learner. The objectives of general education run like lateral zones of emphases across the vertical columns of subject matter that constitute the average curriculum. "These points of intersection are the 'power points' at which a course, by appropriate subject matter and method, makes its most telling contribution to the overall functional objectives of the program [of general education]."²

It is too much to expect, however, that this kind of diligent opportunism on the part of the teacher will produce in all instances, or in most instances, educated people. Not because it *can't* be done, but because it *won't* be done. The traditional subject-matter-mindedness of most college faculties is something to be reckoned with. Surrounded by textbooks and syllabuses, and by stout-hearted colleagues and department heads who insist

²Roy Ivan Johnson, *Explorations in General Education* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1947), p. 51.

that the "ground must be covered" at all costs, even the most inspired teacher finds his "freedom to teach" limited by rigid course requirements and artificially imposed standards. Hence the importance and necessity, in a general education program, of course reorganization under institutional benediction and with the voluntary cooperative effort of the faculty concerned.

On the whole, the development of sound basic courses in the various areas—for example, humanities, social studies, science—holds the greatest promise for improved results in general education. The effort attacks the problem at its root; that is, relating learning to the needs of living. This becomes the first criterion in the organization of a general education course. Says Dean McGrath, "We are strongly of the opinion that unless the content of the [general education] courses is significantly related to the dominant problems of today, it will have little meaning to the student as an individual and our stated objectives may not be achieved."³ It follows that the content for these courses will be highly selected. They will not be "thin" courses. Rather, they will challenge the best which the student and teacher have to give, since they will be hinged to human experience and human problems. The student will acquire knowledge for *use*, not merely for his notebook or his examination paper. Application becomes the test of learning.

Let us look at some of the approaches that have been made to the development of a basic course in the humanities. First, there are differences in the interpretation of the term. What *are* the humanities? In some programs, as at Stephens College, the basic course deals only with the fine arts—literature, painting, music, sculpture, architecture, dancing—with some application to what may be called the practical, or applied, arts. Sometimes, however, the whole field of communications is included in the humanities. More often than not philosophy takes its place as a member of the humanities family. History, too, defined as the guardian and interpreter of the cultural heritage of man⁴ is

³E. J. McGrath, *et al.*, *Toward General Education* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1948), p. 135.

⁴*Ibid.*, p. 133.

often given a humanities label. In its broadest interpretation, therefore, a basic humanities course must deal with the communicational ability, with aesthetic appreciations, with philosophic understandings, and with historical interpretations. (And unless religion is included, by implication, under philosophy, a fifth function must be added.) Needless to say, no single course (at least none with which I am acquainted) has undertaken so broad a challenge. The scope is too inclusive. "As a result," Dunkel points out, "if the humanities in recent years have felt themselves being crowded out of the curriculum, one reason for this pressure is the large area which they occupy within it."⁵

The types of organization that have been used in basic humanities courses are as varied as the courses themselves. It is natural that the pedagogical mind should seek a neat and orderly plan in which subject matter could be logically categorized and logical sequences preserved. It is apparent that if the course is to effect "integration in learning" on the part of the student, it must fall into some kind of organizational plan that will give it root and anchorage. But it is doubtful whether *one* plan, to the exclusion of all others, can ever be called the best for all teachers and all students. The one that has least to commend it is the "hodge-podge" plan, whereby a two weeks' study of sculpture is followed by two weeks of music, which is followed by two weeks of poetry, and so on through the year. It would take tight mortar indeed to hold the blocks together.

Among other types of organization that have been used are the following: (1) courses based on the historical development of the arts; (2) courses based on dominant ideas or "themes" as they have influenced artistic expression; (3) courses based on certain aesthetic principles which seem to be common to the different arts. The plan of organization which was finally adopted in the humanities course at Stephens College is related to the common principles approach, but is considerably more comprehensive. It follows the logical steps in observation and judgment in studying a work of art. The five headings utilized are back-

⁵ Harold B. Dunkel, *General Education in the Humanities* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1947), p. 257.

ground (subject and function), medium, elements, organization, and style and judgment.⁶ An advantage claimed for this type of organization is that it gives the student a tool with which he can study and evaluate different works of art in different expressional media.

After summing up the pros and cons of the critics with respect to various types of organization that have been attempted, Dunkel points out that most colleges that have been experimenting with a humanities course have rightly ceased to worry about trying to follow a single-type organization. "As an illustration we may cite chronological courses which preface the chronological sections of the course with some work on the aesthetic principles, or with a mosaic study of the elements of the various arts."⁷ This observation supports the comment made earlier in this paper, namely, that a borrowed course is not as likely to fit the requirements of a particular situation as a self-built course. As new courses develop, I hope we shall see less imitation and more creative experimentation.

If the basic general education course is accepted as the best method of insuring an integrated experience for the student in the major areas of study, let us look for a moment at the plight of the humanities. Assume that a principle of parity has been declared and that a one-year course has been set up in the social studies, in the natural sciences, and in the humanities in order to give to the nonspecializing student a broad basis of understanding in these areas. It is obvious that the course in humanities cannot carry the load if to the study of the arts is added the study of philosophy and history as well as the obligation to improve the students' communicational abilities. The answer, I think, is four courses instead of one. In areas so disproportionate in scope no principle of parity can safely be followed. To attempt to crowd into one course the disciplines and understandings essential to an intelligent appreciation of our cultural heritage in the arts, in literature and language, in philosophy and history, is to create a lopsided curriculum that will produce lopsided personalities.

⁶ See Johnson, *op. cit.*, pp. 78-88.

⁷ Dunkel, *op. cit.*, p. 245.

We need a course in literature and the fine arts, followed by a well-packed exploratory course in literary masterpieces. We need a course in philosophy and history to open the doorways into the past and provide an understanding of man's actions and motives. And we need a basic course in communications that will diagnose students' shortcomings in the skills of reading, writing, and speaking (and even listening), and apply the necessary disciplines for improvement.

I particularly commend the course in communications on the ground that it brings into synthesis the various factors of communicational skill and relates them purposefully to life needs and to functional situations. If, however, the course is simply a patchwork of so many hours of composition, so many hours of reading, so many hours of making speeches, no great advantage can be claimed over the segregated training offered by the traditional courses. The first business of the course in communications is to discover the skill levels of the various students. Its next obligation is to raise these levels to as high a point of efficiency as possible. I do not regard the function of a communications course as wholly remedial. It is primarily developmental, and it will often reap its greatest rewards in the growth of students who, in preliminary tests, could skim by on a minimum standard of adequacy.

The communications teacher is contributing not only to the personal effectiveness of the student in future social and business relationships but also to his success as a learner—for the ability to communicate, to understand and use ideas, is an indispensable tool in every department of study. To quote Dean McGrath, again, "Unless the student can read and listen with perception, books and lectures will be of little avail; and unless he can write and speak with facility, his usefulness as a scholar and citizen will be impaired. . . . In a very real sense, skill with language is at once an appropriate part of the business of general education and a prerequisite to it."⁸ Hence, in order to effect the maximum transfer from instruction to practice, communicational skills must be taught in relation to *use*—not abstracted from their

⁸ McGrath, *et al.*, *op cit.*, p. 53.

functional settings and treated as museum specimens under a glass bell.

The scope of this paper does not permit comment on the important contribution which the institution as a whole can make to the objectives of general education through practical applications in the life and environment of the campus. The study of music, art, and drama can be greatly re-enforced through college-sponsored concerts, exhibits, and productions. Walls of classrooms and halls can be made attractive. The aesthetic principle can be applied, in some measure at least, to the selection of furnishings. If it is the business of the college to teach art, it is also its business to *apply* art, within the limits of its ability. Likewise, the level of communicational ability can be appreciably raised if the interests of the faculty and of the administration converge upon it as a worth-while objective. Most teachers no longer shrug off their feeling of responsibility for at least moral insistence upon good English standards. Likewise, they are more and more concerned with the reading and study habits of their students. All this, of course, is as it should be, for the secret of success in general education lies first in the faith of the institution in its program and, second, in the cooperation of the total faculty and administration in attaining the end results.

The Place of the Community College in a State Educational System¹

By ALVA R. DAVIS

WE OF THE WEST have been forced to a serious consideration of post-high-school educational problems because of a mass migration, with California on the receiving end. So great has been this migration that the California population increase since the 1940 census has been greater than the total population of any one of thirty selected states. While we must accept this migration, the social, economic, and educational problems these people have brought with them have been straining our capacity for adjustment.

The 1947 state legislature appropriated funds and authorized the setting-up of a committee to survey the needs of California in higher education. A committee of three was formed—one chosen from the University of California, one from the State Department of Education, and the third (Professor Emeritus George D. Strayer, of Columbia) was a selection of the first two. After an intensive study this committee (generally known as the "Strayer Committee") recorded its appraisals and recommendations in a comprehensive volume entitled *A Report of a Survey of the Needs of California in Higher Education*,² which appeared in March 1948. Most of the recommendations contained therein have been accepted by the legislature, the State Department of Education, and the university, and they now constitute a plan for future developments. My discussion of the community college is in the light of this far-reaching plan.

It would be well to sketch briefly the higher educational system

¹ A condensation of an address delivered before the Arts and Science Division, Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, November 10, 1948, Washington, D.C.

² *A Report of a Survey of the Needs of California in Higher Education*, Submitted by the Liaison Committee of the Regents of the University of California and the State Department of Education (Sacramento: Committee for the Survey of the Needs of California in Higher Education [Library and Courts Bldg.], March 1, 1948).

now in operation in the state. There are two main administrative areas. The University of California in its many state-wide parts is administered by a board of twenty-four regents—sixteen appointed by the governor and serve sixteen-year staggered terms; eight are ex officio members. The primary and secondary school system, the two-year junior (community) colleges, and the four-year state colleges function under the State Department of Education, the director of which is also appointed by the governor. This director is one of the ex officio members of the university Board of Regents.

The university is charged with responsibility for education at the higher professional, academic, and graduate levels. These responsibilities are not defined in detail by law; instead, the regents, acting as agents of the state, operate under a very broad corporate charter. Since this is a constitutional provision, the legislature cannot directly alter the university's program, and this freedom from political control permits the regents to set up a long-range plan for development with considerable assurance that it will not be altered at the whim of political groups. The further fact that a governor may fill vacancies on the board but cannot discharge a member (except by impeachment) makes for stability.

The emphasis on higher academic and professional training, graduate work, research, and the selection of students characterizes the university and qualitatively sets it apart from institutions of collegiate grade administered by the State Department of Education—the junior and state college local-area type which make up the group generally known as “community colleges.” The emphasis of this group is on preparation for advanced academic and professional work and particularly on vocational and semiprofessional training. In order to meet regional responsibilities and carry out the program allotted to them by law, they at present place no scholastic barrier to admission other than high school graduation. In making the above distinction, there is no intent to place one program above the other: each has its important place in the state's educational system. Moreover, these are not unrelated parts—the California plan involves one inte-

grated system. The guiding principle governing educational support by the state is that society has responsibility for the maintenance of a system of education and training that will best develop its youth to the fullness of individual capacity. Since individual talents vary, the system must contain educational and training elements devised to care for diversity of need.

THE PLACE OF THE UNIVERSITY

The legal freedom of the regents to fix policy has enabled them to establish the standard of entrance to the university they alone deemed wise. They have determined that admission is not the automatic right of every high school graduate—rather that the secondary school record of the applicant must demonstrate definite promise of capacity to profit by instruction at the university level. Actually, approximately one out of five high school graduates—that is, the upper 20 percent—qualifies for admission.

The Strayer Committee has recommended that enrollments on the Berkeley and Los Angeles campuses be held to 20,000 each, and that the lower-division demands be met in the main by the junior and state colleges through their academic and pre-professional training programs. In spite of the scholastic barriers to admission, the university has steadily increased in enrollments, with the chief pressure on the Colleges of Letters and Science at Berkeley and Los Angeles. On the former campus the college has about 55 percent of the local enrollment, that is, approximately 13,000 students.

It has appeared desirable, therefore, in order to keep total campus enrollments within control and at the same time permit major emphasis at the upper-division and graduate levels, to erect off-campus four-year liberal arts colleges. Such a college is in full operation at Santa Barbara. Plans are complete for a second in connection with the College of Agriculture at Davis, approximately seventy-five miles from Berkeley, and for a third at Riverside, about the same distance east of Los Angeles. These three liberal arts colleges are within the framework of the university; standards for entrance, continuance, and graduation will

ultimately be the same, and transfer from one to another, or to the Berkeley or Los Angeles campus will be made a simple procedure.

It is not expected that these separated university liberal arts colleges will offer graduate work, nor will it be possible for such colleges to provide as rich a field of major programs as are obtainable on the main campuses. But the programs will be comparable to those of the best of the privately endowed liberal arts colleges; they will be directly integrated with the university; they will have carefully selected faculties; and, from a financial point of view, they will have the same assurance of support as does the remainder of the university.

Such liberal arts colleges, in addition to spreading the load of the university, will, by reason of their geographical location, take on some of the characteristics of a community college in that they will function as local-area cultural centers. They will also serve as natural focuses for the university extension program, particularly for the extension classroom instruction, and for its lecture, music, short-course, and institute services.

The influence of these new and projected liberal arts colleges on the university undergraduate distribution pattern is for the future to disclose. The effect of the nonuniversity junior college is not uncertain; it has been most significant both as a safety valve and as a modifier of undergraduate distribution. Our total full-time enrollment on the Berkeley campus in the fall of 1948 was 23,145, distributed as follows:

	New Students	Old Students	Total
Freshmen	2,100	502	2,602
Sophomores	843	3,875	4,718
Juniors	1,796	3,644	5,440
Seniors	451	4,604	5,055
Special	167	594	761
Graduates	1,891	2,678	4,569
Total	7,248	15,897	23,145

The significance of these statistics lies in the internal distribution of the student population they show. The striking tend-

ency is for more and more students to take their lower-division preparation in the junior, or community, college and to transfer to the university during their second or third year. This produces three profound effects on the university.

First, there is a consequential emphasis on advanced undergraduate, professional, and graduate programs, and this enables the university to develop to its fullest stature; second, it acts to increase the average university student maturity; third, the community (junior) college functions as an important screening device, which automatically simplifies the university's problems and tends to reduce the large numbers of incompetent, poorly prepared, or maladjusted students. This guidance service and the designed, or accidental, screening performed by the community college are two of the fine contributions the local-area institution makes to the university.

Guidance service is most needed at the community college level. This is the point where many students are uncertain of what they want to do or in what field their particular talents, if any, lie. We all too frequently say there are too many students in the university. This may be true, but we cannot rid ourselves of responsibility by raising entrance standards and then making faces over the scholastic fence at those excluded. Before students ever reach the university, they should receive all the expert guidance that present knowledge of human behavior permits. It seems beyond refutation that the earlier one is steered into interests best adjusted to his genetic pattern, the better. The high school is not too early; the two-year community college with its combination of academic and vocational interests would seem to be the logical place, the critical location, for appraising student potentials, the place for the student to find himself.

So far I have stressed the university as a part of the total higher educational plan: it provides the advanced levels of education and is a state center rather than a local-area center. But it is not an isolated part of the system; to be effective it must be articulated with the other parts. Despite the fact its direct concern is with that fraction of the total student population possessing unusual scholastic capacities, its general concern must be to

raise the achievement level of the society of which it is a part. To this end it must have more than a detached interest in those elements of the system where the direct concern is with other educational levels and with other programs. It cannot set itself apart from the high school or the community college—there are too many interrelated problems. Permit me now to turn to a consideration of these other components of the higher educational system with particular reference to the development of the community college.

THE PLACE OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

The community college is not a new concept, or even a new part of our educational system. It represents an evolutionary development. The President's Commission on Higher Education as well as Dr. Conant in his recent book *Education in a Divided World* both emphasized it in a way that seemed to imply newness, if not originality, but I find they are discussing our old friend, junior college.

What is a community college? How does it differ from other colleges? What are its goals, its functions? How does it fit into our educational system? Is it educationally sound? Does it come into conflict with, or serve as a desirable adjunct to, the university? Does it invade the field of the privately endowed liberal arts college and thus serve as an additional threat to the survival of that valuable institution? Do the budgetary requirements for such units jeopardize adequate support of other well-established and justifiable educational activities? I do not intend to answer all these questions, although I will consider the more important of them.

The Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education states, "The purpose of a community college is educational service to the community." While this statement is elaborated later on in that report, it is, as it stands, too limited, too loose. The community college does not include all "educational service"; rather, it is limited to "educational service" of certain kinds. It is educational service which has to do with local-area post-high-school needs below the professional, undergraduate

major, and graduate levels—and for the adult as well as youth. It is concerned with both *formal* and *informal* educational programs, with training as well as education, with the vocational and cultural needs of the local area as well as with preparation for advanced training at higher levels elsewhere. The ideal community college is the cultural center of the local area; it is sensitive to the needs of the community, but it should not merely strive to satisfy these needs; it should exert positive cultural leadership.

The first junior college in California was established in 1910 under a law permitting high schools to offer post-high-school courses in academic subjects. The law was the result of local-area pressure based in turn on economy as well as on parental solicitude. There followed the setting-up of many similar junior colleges, organized either as adjuncts of high schools or as independent two-year institutions. They were then, and have continued to be, developed within the administrative framework of the secondary school system rather than that of the university. They are tuition-free and are financed locally by assessment districts, with some state aid, based, as is the high school, on average daily attendance.

There are now about fifty public junior colleges in the state with a total enrollment in 1947 of well over 60,000, or an average of approximately 1,000 per unit. And the estimates are that California may look forward to a total college student population in 1960 of approximately 228,000. I do not refer to youth of college age, but to the number expected to attend an institution of collegiate grade if the present ratio holds. We can also estimate that if the present percentage is maintained, the community college must be geared to care for approximately 40 percent of the above number.

The first junior colleges were not community colleges in the sense used by the President's Commission; instead, they limited their programs to the first two years of a liberal arts program with only a slight sprinkling of nonacademic subjects. As previously stated, the present community character of the college, with its occupational emphasis, is the result of an evolutionary

process, stimulated in part by outside educational forces, in part by local pressures.

The various factors which were involved in the original establishment of the junior college were supplemented by a more important one as time went on, that is, the extraordinary increase in student population of collegiate age, an increase which demanded either tremendous university expansion, or provision for local institutions. The entire movement could have got out of hand during this formative period had it not been for the wisdom of certain educators and citizens who saw in this local eagerness to have a college an opportunity for accomplishing two worthwhile ends: (1) strengthening the university by draining from it a great flood of students whose academic educational needs could be taken care of locally for the first two collegiate years; (2) the utilization of the junior college as a screening device for the university. Many students who desired post-high-school training would probably find their outlet in occupational-terminal programs.

This later broadening of the program and shift in emphasis was not a simple matter. There were those who strongly believed that the primary function of the high school was college preparation, and there were those in the junior college who considered its curriculum should embrace the first two years of a collegiate academic program and no more. Indeed, vocational subjects were looked upon as intrusions, and the teachers of them as of a definitely lower caste. This attitude has largely disappeared in California. The academic subjects are given as much stress as formerly for those who desire them and can profit by them, but, in addition, there is a recognition that the interests of those who have no desire to take further academic work are also important. If the community college can search out the interests of this group, can train it in good ways of making a living and at the same time awaken an appreciation of responsibilities as citizens and a sense of social values—if it can do this as well as provide an academic springboard for college—it will be performing a most remarkable educational service.

There is much evidence that parallel or associated academic

and vocational programs are successful. Let me give you two examples, one a large city community college, the other selected from a small city and rural area. The students from both on transfer to the university demonstrate sound preparation in academic and preprofessional fields, and the two have excellent reputations for vocational training. The large city unit is the City College of San Francisco, and the rural representative is Riverside College in the citrus belt east of Los Angeles. The San Francisco City College is of special interest since in the same city is the four-year San Francisco State College, a remodeled state normal school, and across the bay is the Berkeley campus of the University of California. Despite this seeming competition from other public tuition-free institutions, the City College functions successfully in its own field. This college has a staff of 240—176 men and 64 women, and of these 34 possess the doctorate, 123 the master's, and 58 the bachelor's degree. Most of those with the bachelor's degree teach vocational subjects. The catalog lists the following fields of instruction: in the humanities and social sciences are art, anthropology, English, economics, education, history, music, philosophy, psychology, political science, sociology, and speech. Foreign languages are represented by Latin, French, German, and Spanish; the sciences by anatomy, astronomy, bacteriology, botany, biology, chemistry, geography, geology, physiology, and zoology; the vocational area by business education, business administration, engineering, floriculture, home economics, hotel and restaurant management, law enforcement, photography, and recreational leadership. Truly a most amazing assortment of offerings. This two-year college has an annual budget of \$1,600,000, and its buildings, grounds, and equipment are appraised at \$2,283,000. It has a credit and non-credit, night and day enrollment of almost 8,000, four-fifths of whom are taking semiprofessional and vocational-terminal programs. This represents a de luxe edition of the community college.

Riverside College is a typical medium-sized community college, first organized as a part of a high school district and later re-organized under the California district junior college law. Its

program and its service are well adapted to local-area needs, and it functions in a most remarkable manner as a cultural center. It not only conducts its regular academic and occupational courses, but also sponsors noncredit lectures, music and drama offerings, and short courses of varying lengths for housewives, businessmen, farmers, and other groups in the community. The citizens are very proud of their college and support it generously. They do not look on it as a tax burden but rather in the same way they do the support of their own families. The total regular session enrollment in 1946-47 was 5,763 of which 1,128, or less than one-fourth, were in the academic program and 4,635 were in occupational curriculums. I believe this signifies that the college administration is especially alive to opportunities for direct community service, and that because of careful student appraisal and guidance it is restricting preparation for advanced academic or professional work to those who demonstrate high capacity. This institution approaches the community college ideal.

Recently many of the junior colleges, particularly those in the larger centers, have become officially known as city colleges, and the term junior college with its implied lesser academic stature is gradually disappearing in the state. Thus we have San Francisco, Los Angeles, Visalia, and Riverside City Colleges. The new designation raises the prestige of the faculty, adds dignity to the institution, and, practically, tends to set it off more sharply from the high school, with which in certain cases it has been too closely identified for the proper development of a broadened program. It is no longer looked upon as something inferior to four-year colleges or to the university, but rather as different only in the kind of opportunities. Indeed, I have had students complain that certain courses which they desired could be obtained at their home city college but not at the university!

THE PLACE OF THE STATE COLLEGE

The picture of the community college in California as a part of the educational system would not be complete without reference to the state college with its four- and sometimes one- and

two-year terminal programs. During the period when the junior college was undergoing its scholastic metamorphosis, the state normal schools were also undergoing change—again, both in name and program. Originally they were established for elementary teacher training exclusively. Gradually the offerings both in liberal arts and in vocational subjects were expanded on the argument that new demands on the teacher required a greater breadth of preparation as well as more intensive training in certain subject-matter fields. In 1927 the state legislature changed all normal schools to teacher colleges with centralized control lodged in the state director of education and the following year authorized the granting of the B.A. degree. In 1935 the name was again changed, this time to "state college," and authority given to expand its offerings greatly. In 1946 the state colleges, six in number, were given permission to offer graduate work leading to the general secondary credential. This credential in California requires one year of graduate study but does not necessarily involve the master's degree. At present the state colleges have no authority to grant advanced degrees.

We thus find the original normal school expanded its liberal arts and occupational programs, but kept the major emphasis on teacher training. There was an easy transition, on the one hand, from the liberal arts fields to preprofessional and liberal arts major preparation and, on the other, from vocational training for teachers to vocational and semiprofessional two- and four-year terminal programs. Confusion arose as to goals and functions, which is not yet completely clarified. It has taken on the functions of a liberal arts college without having succeeded in capturing the spirit. Its one- and two-year terminal occupational programs, in general, have not been developed with that clarity of purpose which has been demonstrated by most junior colleges. I am afraid there is an ambition to expand programs rather than develop excellence in the more restricted, but highly important, field of teacher education and teacher training. The Strayer Committee regards the state college as being primarily concerned "with the education of teachers and with courses which prepare for occupational competency at a degree level. They

should be only secondarily responsible for general liberal arts major programs, or preprofessional or academic preparation for advanced or graduate work. They should not be granted authority to conduct graduate work involving research for professional training other than teaching."

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE HIGHER EDUCATION UNITS

Although the meshing of educational gears is not yet as smooth as one would wish as far as the state college is concerned, I believe the positions of the university and of the two-year community college with respect to purpose are fairly clearly defined and understood. The point as to whether the junior college should be administered as a part of the high school system or be given a distinct and separate place, can be debated. We have both types of organization in California, the distinction being based largely on local economic considerations rather than on educational criteria. On this latter basis alone I confess a "reasoned prejudice," if such be possible, in favor of the separate institution, particularly in the light of its development as a community college. The data on faculty competence indicate that such an independent college—one freed from high school administrative linkage—can attract a better-trained staff and a staff chosen to develop its distinctive program. There is a disinclination on the part of staff members to participate in both high school and junior college teaching.

In a few cases the junior college has developed as the lower-division element in a four-year state college. This is held by the Strayer Committee to be undesirable, particularly from the point of view of administration—I believe it is also educationally unsound. The junior college, as previously indicated, is financed as a part of the secondary school system, that is, districts are organized and local tax assessments levied. While this support is augmented by a state subsidy on the basis of average daily attendance, the primary responsibility is lodged with the citizens of the local district, and the controlling governing board is local—two important points in the development of a community college. The

state college, on the other hand, is financed entirely out of the general funds of the state, and administration is centered in the State Department of Education. To combine the two, therefore, would develop administrative and budgetary complexities and confusions. Such associations are disappearing, and the three new state colleges proposed by the Strayer Committee will be organized independently of existing junior colleges in their vicinity.

These varied developments of which I have spoken are modifying the university and are themselves being modified by the university. Because of the assumption by the community college of the great task of caring for the major portion of the lower-division load, the university tends more and more to become an upper-division and graduate institution. In my opinion this is a desirable trend. It does not mean that the university will do away with its own lower division, but it does mean that it will select more carefully—placing emphasis on those with definite promise of high scholastic attainment. The university will receive most of its students as transfers from the community college at the junior level. These must meet the raised standards for admission; therefore, we must have a sympathetic and helpful interest in the quality of academic and preprofessional preparation given at that college. Even more than this—we must aid in the solution of the basic educational problem confronting the community college—that of so combining education with occupational training as to produce not merely a trained individual but one with some understanding of the social medium in which he must use his training.

There are problems, of course, in the university-community college relationship. These chiefly relate to the equating of academic courses, and particularly courses involved in preprofessional preparation. Some of our professional school faculty have established excellent working relationships with their community college colleagues. There is an eagerness for such associations on the part of the college staff, and we should build on it. Often the university has made what seemed to it to be de-

sirable curricular changes, but without reference to the interests of the community colleges—without consulting them or giving them time for adjustment. This is not good common sense; we must give as well as take; we have a common general purpose.

From our varied and extensive experiences with the community college since its beginning in California in 1910 there has been a distillation of general conclusions which will undoubtedly serve as guiding principles in future education developments. There is an acknowledgment that society has the responsibility for developing youth to the fullness of inherent potentiality; that such inherent capacity varies with the individual, hence what is good training for one may not be the best for another (that is, a broad plan of education must provide for the needs of diversely equipped individuals); that in a democracy the local citizen should have both a direct interest in and a large responsibility for the educational and training needs at the community level; that these two general educational programs, that of the university and that of the community college, do not conflict, but actually comprise two intimately related parts of a common whole and as such, if properly devised and administered, add strength to each; that the inclusion of local units in the higher educational plan, interrelating local and state-wide programs, should develop a broad awareness of problems and needs in education which in turn should tend to raise the average educational level.

Implementing the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education

A Case Study for Pennsylvania

By ALFRED B. BONDS, JR.

SINCE THE FORMAL CLOSING of the affairs of the President's Commission on Higher Education in April 1948, the question has often been raised as to what practical steps are being taken to "implement" the recommendations of the Commission.

The question is being answered in many ways in many parts of the country. The Commission dealt in a far-ranging way with a national problem of great importance. The Commission addressed its recommendations to no one agency or group, but to the American people generally. There were, of course, specific suggestions directed at what the Commission regarded as required renovations within the academic world. But the total report was addressed to the American people, including the academic community, and constituted a standing invitation to all to examine carefully the role of higher education in American democracy.

A detailed and painstaking study of the Commission's report is taking place in at least one of our major state universities. It was the privilege of this writer to be invited during the summer of 1948 to serve as a consultant at the Pennsylvania State College Workshop on Higher Education. There, under the leadership of Dr. Albert Lindsay Rowland, a group of Pennsylvania educators were using the Commission's volumes as texts for their discussions of current problems in higher education in Pennsylvania. It was equally gratifying to find that President Ralph Hetzel had appointed a distinguished standing committee of his faculty to study the Commission's reports and offer recommendations as to how the Commission's suggestions might be implemented by the Pennsylvania State College.

Late in July 1948 these two groups were joined by a state-

wide gathering of superintendents and principals from Pennsylvania's secondary schools. Under the general theme "Pennsylvania's Future through Education," the Superintendents and Principals Conference led off with a discussion of how the report of the President's Commission might best be implemented in the public schools of Pennsylvania. Of greatest interest to this group was the Commission's proposal for a tremendous expansion in the so-called "community college" movement.

The Commission's recommendation for free public education through the thirteenth and fourteenth grades represents one of its major proposals. The Commission had set its judgment of the dimensions of higher education in a noble frame:

Equal educational opportunity for all persons, to the maximum of their individual abilities and without regard to economic status, race, creed, color, sex, national origin, or ancestry is a major goal of American democracy. Only an informed, thoughtful, tolerant people can maintain and develop a free society.¹

The Commission recognized that the primary barrier to the achievement of this announced goal is economic. Further, they realized that one of the major elements in the economic barrier is the cost of room and board away from home. Another important factor is the increasing spiral of tuition costs. The Commission struck at both of these impediments to full educational opportunity and proposed the great upward extension of the free public schools to accommodate all who had the talent to continue their studies.

It is difficult to give tangible form to the incidence of "talent" in our population. The Commission's formula for meeting this problem is now well known. The judgment was based upon the most massive testing program in history—the results of more than 10,000,000 scores made on the Army General Classification Test during World War II. The Commission equated these data against traditional college entrance examination scores

¹ *Higher Education for American Democracy: The Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education, II: Equalizing and Expanding Individual Opportunity* (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947; New York: Harper & Bros., 1948), p. 3.

and arrived at the conclusion that 49 percent of our population could profit by two years of college educational experience. The tests indicated also that 32 percent of our population could complete successfully an advanced liberal or specialized professional education. For purposes of computing the size of possible enrollments under this formula, the eighteen- and nineteen-year-old group was taken as that segment of the population most likely to be enrolled in the thirteenth or fourteenth grade. Similarly, the twenty- and twenty-one-year-old group seemed to represent the population group most likely to be enrolled at the senior college level. The Commission computed that 49 percent of the eighteen- and nineteen-year-old population and 32 percent of the twenty- and twenty-one-year-old population anticipated by 1960 would amount to at least 4,600,000 American young people who should be enrolled in college at that time.

It is believed by certain members of the academic fraternity that no good can come from the effort to provide the widest possible opportunities for higher education. The Commission felt otherwise:

. . . We have proclaimed our faith in education as a means of equalizing the conditions of men. But there is grave danger that our present policy will make it an instrument for creating the very inequalities it was designed to prevent. If the ladder of educational opportunity rises high at the doors of some youth and scarcely rises at all at the doors of others, while at the same time formal education is made a prerequisite to occupational and social advance, then education may become the means, not of eliminating race and class distinctions, but of deepening and solidifying them.²

It should be emphasized that the Commission was deeply aware of the existing shortcomings in the educational system. In advocating a great expansion of facilities, the Commission in no sense intended that there be an uncritical continuation of the scandalous inanities of thought which have characterized certain academic offerings. It was, however, the clear intent of the Commission that the most consecrated efforts should be

² *Ibid.*, I: *Establishing the Goals*, 36.

made toward a constant improvement of the content and the methods of our educational process. A wise man once said that "Education is like democracy—it can only be saved by increasing it. We keep as much as we have by getting more."

But how can we get more? That was the question which the Superintendents and Principals Conference faced at their 1948 meeting. The Commission had identified the economic handicaps as the *bête noir* of most of America's gifted youngsters who were unable to continue their studies at the college level. This conclusion is dramatically reinforced with the fact that in 1946 one-half of the families in this nation had an income of \$2,600 per year or less. It is scarcely realistic to think of the median-income family being able to provide the \$1,000 per year which in 1947 was the *average* cost of a year in college. Nor does the total answer lie in the vast program of fellowships and scholarships recommended by the Commission. Inevitably, the data available seemed to suggest to the Commission that the most effective solution lay in the wide-scale development of community colleges.

It is an admittedly difficult task to establish one college. It is all the more complex to undertake the creation of a series of institutions geared to the pattern of pressing state-wide needs. The Commission recognized these difficulties and consequently identified certain large principles relating to the establishment of community colleges. Fundamental among these principles is the necessity for state-wide planning. These community colleges should not serve local needs alone. Each community will have its peculiar needs toward which its college should build, but no one college would be able, or should try, to satisfy the educational needs of all of the citizens within its area. The local institutions would be expected to choose the fields in which it seemed most desirable for them to develop their strength, but those choices could best be made in terms of a state-wide pattern.

Pennsylvania affords an ideal case study of the possible implementation of the community college phase of the Commission's report. In November 1948 the Pennsylvania Committee on

Post-High School Education proposed to the governor and the General Assembly the creation within the State Department of Education of a Division of Higher Education. Among other things this division would be assigned the task of determining the state's need for junior, or community, colleges. The recommendation actually represents a residual objective of the Committee on Post-High School Education. The committee, formed in October 1947, was originally charged among other assignments with exploring the state's need for junior, or community, colleges. At the time of the legally established deadline of November 15, 1948, however, the committee had been unable to complete its studies on this problem.

Dr. George A. Works, director of the Pennsylvania post-high school education study, and Dr. Carl E. Seifert, executive secretary of the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities, announced at the beginning of the project that their inquiry would cover not only the educational resources of the state, but the existing and future needs as well. President Herbert Spencer, of Bucknell University, president of the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities and a member of the Committee on Post-High School Education, estimated that ". . . fifty percent of our more able students graduating from high school do not continue their education in our institutions of higher learning."

Other facets of the Pennsylvania study were to have included: engineering education and technical instruction; post-high school education in agriculture; population trends and distribution within the state; teacher education; medical education; dental education; and nursing education. It is regrettable that the committee was unable to follow through with its broadly conceived plans for this inquiry. In its present form their report^a calls for a continuation of their studies. One of the major recommendations in the November 15, 1948, version of their study

^a *Findings and Recommendations of the Committee on Post-High School Education: A Report to the Governor and General Assembly of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania from the Joint State Government Commission* (Harrisburg, Pa.: Joint State Government Commission, Capitol Building, 1948).

cites "... a definite need for some type of post-high school education of less than a four-year college curriculum. It should be on a subprofessional basis with one or two year terminal courses. . . ."

If the Pennsylvania committee's recommendations for a continuation of its studies are received favorably, the scholarly heirs of this inquiry will shortly be facing prototypes of the same problems which the President's Commission faced as it attempted to define the dimensions of the national educational program. What should be the dimensions of Pennsylvania's program of higher education? For purposes of our present speculation let us apply to the Pennsylvania situation the same basic formulae used in the Report of the President's Commission.

In the academic year 1947-48, there were 142,280 students enrolled in Pennsylvania's 111 institutions of higher education. The Bureau of the Census has estimated that there were in Pennsylvania in 1947 a total of 725,000 persons between eighteen and twenty-one years of age. This means that 19.8 percent, nearly one-fifth of Pennsylvania's youth of college age, were enrolled in college. A fraction of this percentage must be discounted because of the veteran enrollment which represents a borrowing from an older age group.

The United States Office of Education has estimated that there will be 604,000 youth of college age in Pennsylvania in 1952, and that by 1960 this number will have increased to 635,000. Let us assume that Pennsylvania is a typical state in so far as the distribution of intelligence and age groupings is concerned. On this basis let us apply the Commission's formula to arrive at the number of young people who *should* be in college in the years ahead.

In 1952 if 49 percent of the eighteen- and nineteen-year-old youth were enrolled in college, the colleges would have 134,000 students at the freshman and sophomore levels. This is less than 10,000 short of the total enrolled at all levels during the 1947-48 academic year. By 1952, also, under the Commission's formula, Pennsylvania would have an additional 100,000 students studying in their junior year or above.

In 1960, in order to have 49 percent of the eighteen- and nineteen-year-old youth enrolled in Pennsylvania colleges at the freshman or sophomore levels, a total of 163,000 registrations would have to be reached. At the same time, if 32 percent of the twenty- and twenty-one-year-old group were enrolled, there would be an additional 94,000 college students registered at the junior year or above. This combined enrollment of 257,000 will be equivalent to roughly 40 percent of Pennsylvania's estimated population between eighteen and twenty-one years of age in 1960. It will be noted that this is a 100 percent increase in the total 19.8 percent segment of the college-age group attending Pennsylvania colleges during the 1947-48 academic year. This projection, therefore, seems directly in line with President Spencer's observation that only one-half of Pennsylvania's able youth now continue their formal training beyond the secondary schools. The Office of Education figures seem to indicate by 1960 a substantial drop from the 1947 level in the over-all population in the college-age bracket. Consequently, the projected enrollment of 257,000 in 1960 is only an 80 percent increase over the registration of the 1947-48 academic year. This is a gross numerical gain of 114,720 students.

Let us further assume for purposes of this projection that Pennsylvania's present 111 institutions will continue to grow over the next twelve years. A 10 percent increase in their total presently swollen registration would leave roughly 100,000 students yet to be accommodated if the intellectually able youth of the state are to be given equal educational opportunities. If we accept this figure of 100,000 as the tentative increment for which Pennsylvania shall need to plan, we can then move to some further interesting projections. Table 1 presents a summary of our projections up to this point.

It should be assumed that all of the expansion of enrollment at the junior year or above will occur in already-established four-year institutions. The figure of 100,000, then, represents the number of freshman and sophomore students for whom facilities will be needed by 1960.

The Commission has established a space requirement of

TABLE 1

PROJECTIONS ON COLLEGE ENROLLMENT IN PENNSYLVANIA: A CASE STUDY OF THE RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE PRESIDENT'S COMMISSION ON HIGHER EDUCATION*

	Estimated College-Age Population in Pennsylvania (18-21)	Total Number Enrolled or Expected To Be Enrolled	Percent of Total Age Group Expected To Be Enrolled	Numbers To Be Enrolled in 13th and 14th Grades (49%)	Numbers To Be Enrolled in 15th Grade or Above (32%)	Numbers To Be Accommodated in Existing Institutions Based on Projected 10% Expansion in the Current Enrollment
1947	725,000	142,280	19.8	78,000†	64,000†
1952	604,000	234,000	38.0	134,000	100,000
1960	635,000	257,000	40.0	163,000	94,000	156,000‡

* Adapted from *Higher Education for American Democracy, I: Establishing the Goals*, and also from unpublished estimates furnished by the United States Office of Education.

† Estimates of probable distribution of enrollment during the 1947-48 academic year.

‡ Sixty-two thousand in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades, 94,000 in the fifteenth grade and above.

155 square feet per student. This estimate is based upon careful joint studies which were developed by the U.S. Office of Education and the Federal Works Agency. This formula places the total new space requirements for the community colleges in Pennsylvania at 15,500,000 square feet by 1960. The Federal Works Agency estimates that on the basis of 1947 construction costs the average academic building may be erected and equipped for about \$18 per square foot. On this basis it will cost \$279,000,000 over the next twelve years to provide for Pennsylvania the physical plants required by the new community colleges. This sum prorates at about \$24,000,000 per year. It is certain that considerable savings could be made in this amount through such devices as cooperative purchasing, cooperative architectural services, and careful attention to related economies. The Commission has recommended that the federal government bear one-third of the costs of these new buildings. The remaining \$16,000,000 per year would come from state or local sources, or both.

In Volume IV of the Commission's report, *Staffing Higher Education*, it is recommended that every effort be made to maintain a maximum student-faculty ratio of 20 to 1 at the freshman-sophomore level. This figure is flexible, of course, and at best is only a convenient basis for estimates. Within this

framework, the 100,000 students in Pennsylvania's proposed new community colleges will require at least 5,000 teachers. This figure does not include any increments necessary to offset present shortages. The recruitment and preparation of these faculty members and their administrators is a massive task and should evoke some constructive innovations in the training of college teachers. These proposed innovations are discussed in detail in Volume IV of the Commission report. The Commission has also suggested that the federal government share in the cost of faculty salaries. This federal aid, according to the Commission, should be apportioned among the states on an equalization basis. Each state's share should be determined by an objective formula designed to measure the state's relative need for higher education and its relative ability to finance an adequate program.

The estimate of the cost of equipping the new plants does not include the cost of library books. The American Library Association, at the request of the Commission, has stated its belief that a minimal amount of \$18 to \$25 per student per year is required for an efficient college library. If we consider that \$20 per student is a reasonable average, it will be necessary to include an additional \$2,000,000 per year for library books as a part of the operating cost of these new institutions.

On quite another front, it is interesting to calculate how much benefit the state of Pennsylvania would receive from the vast federal scholarship program which has been proposed by the Commission. The recommendations of the Commission contemplated a 1948-49 program whereby at least 20 percent of the undergraduate nonveteran students would be eligible for federal scholarship grants. These grants would be made on the basis of individual need coupled with the requisite qualifications of total personal abilities and interests. This 20 percent segment would increase numerically as the number of veteran students decreased. If the Commission's proposals are followed, the number of grants will increase until 1960 when there would be aid for more than 1,000,000 undergraduate students throughout the nation.

These awards, limited by Commission recommendation to \$800 per student per year, would be distributed throughout all of the states on a two-point formula: first, the amount of a state's allocation would be determined by the proportionate number of high school students graduating within the state in a given year in relation to the total number of high school students graduating in that same year throughout the nation; second, the allocation of funds would rest upon the proportion of the young people in the eighteen- to twenty-one-year-old age group in residence in the state as compared with the total eighteen- to twenty-one-year-old youth in the total population in the same year.

The estimated population of the United States in 1960 will include 9,699,000 youth between the ages of eighteen through twenty-one. The U.S. Office of Education estimates that 635,000, or about 6.5 percent, of these young people will live in Pennsylvania. If we can also assume that Pennsylvania will have 6.5 percent of the high school graduates in 1960, this means that the state would be eligible for 6.5 percent of the estimated one billion dollar total scholarship funds—a sum equal to about \$65,000,000, to be apportioned among Pennsylvania's young scholars.

In still another area, the Commission is convinced that while no minimum enrollment figure is universally applicable, institutions with fewer than two hundred full-time students, or the equivalent in part-time students, in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades seldom can operate sufficiently strong programs without excessive cost. There should be little problem here in so far as the state of Pennsylvania is concerned. The 1940 census revealed in Pennsylvania approximately one hundred cities with a population of 10,000 to 20,000. A total of thirty-seven additional cities showed populations ranging from 20,000 to 2,000,000 persons. There were about eight hundred incorporated municipalities, which shows an excellent distribution of population. It should be relatively easy to follow the principle of locating new community colleges to be within reach of the largest possible proportion of qualified young people.

The preliminary step to the organization of these new institutions is the enactment of permissive legislation under which communities will be authorized to extend their public school systems through the fourteenth grade. But even if all of the local communities in the state with population and financial resources great enough to justify establishing community colleges should do so, there would be large areas of the state which were not served. There would be many municipalities far too small to attempt to extend their academic offerings. Yet their young people must have the same opportunity to continue their studies as those youth living in more populous centers. This is the basic reason for the Commission's recommendation that the planning for these new institutions should take place on a state-wide basis. Special efforts should be made to preserve the greatest flexibility in the methods of control and support of these new colleges so that they may fit easily into the state's present educational pattern.

Thus far this "case study" of Pennsylvania has been concerned primarily with some of the more obvious mechanical aspects or physical dimensions of higher education within the state. It should not be forgotten, however, that the major consideration in implementing the Report of the President's Commission on Higher Education is a rigorous examination of the objectives of higher education and of the tools whereby these objectives are to be achieved. The examination of tools and objectives does not lie within the purview of this essay. It is interesting to record, however, that in addition to the State-College discussions already mentioned at least one other Pennsylvania institution is actively engaged in considering philosophical aspects of the report. President Paul S. Havens, of Wilson College, Chambersburg, Pennsylvania, writes that his faculty established a committee informally to explore the report. In a series of four meetings held thus far, this group has ranged through many of the Commission's most important suggestions. Dr. Francis J. Brown, executive secretary of the Commission, was invited to lead a summary session at the conclusion of these discussions. Significant also is the fact that Dean Lyman Jackson of the

State-College group was a prime mover in the exhaustive and penetrating consideration given the Commission's report at the 1948 session of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges.

This ferment of thought about the Commission report within the state of Pennsylvania achieves an objective which is highly regarded by every member of the Commission. This group sought in their report to achieve a pronouncement on common ideals. They recognized that the realization of these ideals traditionally lies within the initiative of the individual scholar. It is to be hoped that the Commission's definitions will secure active adherents. It is even more to be hoped that the Commission's efforts to identify common ideals will accelerate the determined, progressive ferment of thought on the role of higher education in America, and on the various means whereby this role may be played to the full. Here is a pattern of "implementation" which is as volatile and as unending as that conceived by the Commission when it said:

. . . education is the making of the future. Its role in a democratic society is that of critic and leader as well as servant; its task is not merely to meet the demands of the present but to alter those demands if necessary, so as to keep them always suited to democratic ideals. Perhaps its most important role is to serve as an instrument of social transition, and its responsibilities are defined in terms of the kind of civilization society hopes to build.

. . . In the future as in the past, American higher education will embody the principle of diversity in unity: each institution, State, or other agency will continue to make its own contribution in its own way.⁴

This moral and intellectual autonomy then is the secret—if there is any secret—of the strength of American education. And the autonomy is made the more important by the richness and diversity it affords to our continuing and common search in all of the phenomena of man's physical and spiritual existence.

⁴ *Ibid.*, I, 6.

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The Evaluation of Teaching

By E. R. GUTHRIE

THE CALIFORNIA TEACHERS ASSOCIATION has recently passed, with an overwhelming vote, a resolution against the use of any merit ratings in determining salaries. There can be no doubt that many college teachers will be found to share the majority opinion of the California school teachers that any system of merit evaluation is open to objections, some of them legitimate.

There is something inherently shocking to any teacher in the idea that his teaching, which is the outcome of his whole training, his whole philosophy of life, the accidents of his departmental and school environment, of his assigned task in a college system, of his selection of pupils, his state of health, his personal relations with colleagues and administration—that the unique product of all these factors should be represented by a place on a scale or by a number.

There is much to be said for the Army and the Navy which determine pay and rank by seniority until the highest ranks are attained and limit the consideration of special skill to a very subordinate role in the assignment of duties.

On the other hand, in colleges and universities there are manifest disadvantages in a system of promotion based solely on seniority. In 1944 the University of Washington faculty obviously had some of these in mind when 70 percent of the responding members, answering a long questionnaire issued by

the local chapter of the American Association of University Professors, said "yes" in response to the question whether the university should extend the salary scale to make possible very high salaries for a limited group of distinguished scholars. The advantage to any department in having included in it some outstanding leaders in scholarship and teaching is obvious.

There are other advantages of recognizing merit. Every college teacher is familiar with the occasional misfit in the profession—the man or woman who is incapable of teaching or, by a combination of circumstances, practically certain to make no advance in scholarship. It is of great importance to the college and of even greater importance to these individuals that they shall be made aware of their defects before they have acquired tenure and before habit has so fixed them in the role of teacher that change cannot be faced. It is not only the college administrator who must face the responsibility for spending an eventual total of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars of public funds on the salary of a man whose value may be slight or negative. The rest of the faculty and the whole profession really share this responsibility, although it is often not recognized. And there is a far greater responsibility than responsibility for the waste of public money. After all, that is only money. There is responsibility for the waste of student time and attention, for the misdirection of human interest and effort.

The whole issue of evaluation of faculty service was raised at the University of Washington by the 1944 questionnaire referred to earlier. To the question, "Do you believe that administrative officers have adequate information concerning teaching efficiency?" only 14 percent answered either "yes," or with a qualified affirmative. Practically all the others expressed doubt, and 55 percent made this doubt emphatic.

In the same questionnaire faculty members were asked to list the items which should govern promotion. The first nine of these in order of their frequency of mention were later incorporated into a rating scale. The leading item was "teaching effectiveness," and the second was "research contribution."

When the faculty was asked how teaching effectiveness could

be measured, 18 percent pronounced this difficult or impossible. Fifty-two percent of the replies were about equally divided between "comments or opinions of colleagues," "questionnaires to students," and "comments made by students to administrators or other teachers."

These suggestions were eventually incorporated into the current procedure for promotions and evaluation at the university. An evaluation is made when a teacher has been recommended for promotion, or when an assistant professor is about to acquire tenure by entering upon his fifth year of service in that rank, or when a member of the faculty believes that he is being unfairly dealt with in rank or salary.

The evaluation is made by a secret committee which does not meet but reports individually to the executive officer for academic personnel. The candidate for promotion is first asked to supply certain information about himself and to bring his bibliography up to date. He is also asked to make four nominations for his evaluating committee. The committee is appointed, usually including at least three men from the candidate's own department, at least two from allied departments, the executive officer of the candidate's department, and the dean of his college if the dean believes he has adequate knowledge.

The information furnished by the candidate is abstracted for the committee, and each committee member is then sent the information and a rating sheet.

Ratings are made on a "man to man" basis. A quotation from the directions follows:

To indicate your opinion, first fill in the blanks on the next page, in the order of what you believe to be their value to the University, with the names of five faculty members (without regard to rank) in the candidate's department or in closely related departments. Choose one who is outstanding, one who is superior, one who is competent, one who is only fair, and one who is of slight value. Write the names in the order of their merit from best to poorest.

For each of the following items consider where, if inserted in the list of five, the candidate being considered belongs. His name when inserted in this place will make a total of six names. Make a separate judgment for each item.

Encircle after each item the number (from 1 to 6) which indicates the candidate's position for that item.

The nine items are taken from the returns of the A.A.U.P. questionnaire of May 1944. They are arranged in the order of their frequency of mention in replies to the question: What should govern increases in salary and rank?

1. Teaching effectiveness	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Contribution to his field through research and publication	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Value of his departmental and campus activities (other than teaching and research)	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Value to the community or the state	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Ability to cooperate with other members of his department	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Knowledge of his subject	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. General knowledge and range of interest	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Rate of professional growth (current)	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Recognition by others in his profession	1	2	3	4	5	6

Use the remaining space for a statement in your own words of the candidate's qualification for the rank or the increase for which he is being considered.

Several hundred of these ratings have now been accumulated, and some of their more interesting features investigated. The reliability of the final rating as determined by the split-half method (uncorrected) is $r = .44$. This means that the pooled ratings of a seven-man jury have a very substantial consistency.

Between teaching effectiveness, which is judged with high consistency, and research contribution, which is judged with still higher consistency, there is no significant association. This was a matter of great surprise. Most college teachers believe that teaching and research contribute each to the other to an extent which should be evident in the correlation between the two.

Five of the nine items used, "ability to cooperate," "knowledge of his subject," "range of interests," "rate of professional growth," "recognition by others in the field," and also the sum of the ratings in all the items were significantly negatively related to academic maturity as measured by the number of years since getting the bachelor's degree. In the opinion of the faculty, the value of the older men tends to be somewhat less than the value of younger men. But it is to be noted that in faculty opinion this did not hold true of the two most important items, "teaching effectiveness" and "research contribution."

In apparent contradiction with the negative correlation between total rating and academic maturity (number of years since the bachelor's degree) is the fact that there are more full professors in the upper decile ranks and more assistant professors in the lower decile ranks than can be accounted for by chance (χ^2 is significant beyond the 1 percent level). This means, we hope, that there has been some discrimination in making promotions in the past.

Since 1925, when the writer was on a committee of the university faculty appointed to recommend methods for the recognition of teaching in making promotions, and since the early thirties, when Dr. William R. Wilson conducted an elaborate program of student ratings of courses and instructors, the university has accumulated many thousands of student evaluations of instruction. At present, student evaluations are made only on the request of instructors. Such requests are made by between one-fourth and one-third of the faculty each year and keep fully occupied a staff of two full-time and three half-time researchers headed by Miss Grace French, research associate in psychology.

Student ratings of teachers do not agree closely with faculty ratings. Between student-rating scores and faculty-jury scores on teaching effectiveness, the correlation is .48. Since the agreement of student ratings with other student ratings (each being the average of 20) is of the order of .89, and faculty juries of seven agree with other juries of seven between .64 and .76, there is obviously a radical difference in the student evaluation of teaching and in the faculty evaluation. One obvious source of this difference is that the students, when called on to judge a teacher, have sat through from ten to fifty hours of his course, at least one-half of its total. The faculty are dependent on student hearsay, on the observation of the presumed effects of other men's instruction on their own students, and on inferences from their personal acquaintance with men and their academic records.

In the opinion of students, full professors are not better teachers than assistant professors. It will be recalled that faculty

members believe full professors are better. Which is correct, the student or the faculty opinion?

It seems reasonable to assume that the students are the better judges of teaching for the reasons already mentioned. They are in a position to make direct observations of classroom teaching, an activity which few college teachers have observed since their own school days. If the students are right, and full professors are no better teachers than assistant professors, it would appear that the advantages of greater maturity and experience and professional acquaintance, a greater total of research accomplished, may all be offset by possible loss of enthusiasm, increasing distractions, and nonteaching responsibilities. After all, there has been good evidence offered that composers, writers, painters, and scientists, reach their peak of creative effort at the beginning of their fourth decade.

At the University of Washington surveys of student opinion are voluntary. They can be made on request, kept off the record, and not furnished to administrative officers if the teacher so desires. Their greatest value lies in the abstracts of student comment furnished the instructor. These contain, of course, contradictions, but their total gives, we believe, an astonishingly frank and detailed statement of merits and faults. The merits, in the long run, far outrun the faults, because there is a strong student bias toward favorable judgment of instructors, which is as it should be.

It is believed that the system of evaluation in use at Washington is also in favor. It has not been the subject of any recent balloting, but the university has a strong organization for self-government in the faculty through an elective senate of about sixty persons. Unfavorable action by the senate would do away with any part or all of the general method. The writer believes that the general scheme is regarded by most faculty men as a protection against "one man" judgments. Many persons have had advances and a number have had overdue promotions for which the occasion was a favorable rating. One year ago the regression of faculty salaries on academic maturity was plotted and calculated. For each faculty member there was cal-

culated his expected monthly salary as estimated from his academic maturity. The amount and direction by which he differed from this "average" faculty position were calculated—his "error of estimate." This was expressed in terms of its standard deviation. For each man there was then a measure, showing by how many standard deviations he differed from the expected salary.

This measure was compared with his merit rating, also expressed in standard deviation terms. When the second measure subtracted from the first gave a negative result, this meant that colleagues rated the man higher than his salary rating. In about sixty-five cases where this discrepancy was greatest, four hundred dollars was added to the teacher's salary. This reward went to a few men of only average rating, in case their salary position was well below the norm. In some fifteen instances the sum of two hundred dollars was added. These increases were in addition to a widespread increase based on departmental recommendations.

In a few instances these adjustments caused much discussion. These were instances in which men who had always kept together in their rate of advance were now separated by a four-hundred-dollar interval.

In one set of cases there appears to be no question of the advantage of student and colleague ratings. These are those instances of younger men who appear to have mischosen their profession and who must now face very objective evidence of that fact. Although the evidence is fallible, it is far less fallible than self-judgment, which can allow men poorly qualified to misdirect their whole life-effort. There is no better criterion of teaching aptitude than teaching performance, and there are no better judges of teaching performance than students' and colleagues.

Education and Cultural Change in the Arab World¹

By MATTA AKRAWI

EDUCATION IS ESSENTIALLY a social process, intimately connected with the stress of life around it, with the currents and crosscurrents of events, with the heritage of the past and the hopes of the future. To understand and evaluate the present state of education in the six Arab states visited by the American Council on Education commission—Egypt, Iraq, Lebanon, Syria, Transjordan, and Palestine—an attempt should be made to summarize the problems and trends, and in general to throw the educational picture against the background of political, social, and economic life in the Near East.

What, in general, is the present situation in the Arab world? What are the main characteristics of life in it? Which way is the Arab world heading, and what are the problems it is facing? And, finally, what are the educational measures which have been taken to cope with the major problems and needs and changes in Arab life today? How adequate are they, and what can be done to improve the educational endeavors of the various countries? To these questions only a partial answer can be given at present.

BACKGROUND OF ARAB AND NEAR EASTERN LIFE

The Near East, of which the Arab countries are a part, lies at one of the most strategic points in the world. It provides the

¹This article is a condensation of the last chapter of the book *Education in Arab Countries of the Near East* by Roderic D. Matthews and Matta Akrawi, to be published by the American Council on Education in July. The volume is a report of a survey made by Mr. Matthews and Mr. Akrawi under the sponsorship of the Council. Personal visits were made to 471 schools of all levels and types in Egypt, Iraq, Lebanon, Syria, Transjordan, and Palestine during 1945-46; also there were visits to ministries and departments of education in these countries, contacts and talks with educational leaders, and a fairly extensive study of documents, laws, statistics, curriculums, etc. The preceding chapters of the book present a factual report of the schools, their enrollments, their finances, their curriculums, administration, laws and regulations, and the like. In the final chapter, Mr. Akrawi, Director General of Higher Education of Iraq, interprets the facts from the viewpoint of a native of the Arab East, educated in the United States, and with a profound knowledge of comparative education in various countries of both the Old and the New Worlds.

connecting link between the three continents of Asia, Europe, and Africa, and lies at the crossroads of world communication by land, sea, and air. It is this geographical position of the Arab East which has made it the center of trade routes and of paths of invading armies from the very dawn of history. Another factor is the potential wealth of the country. In its early days its agricultural wealth was of prime importance; more recently, mineral wealth in the form of oil has attracted international competition. The world does not seem able to leave it alone—nor can the Near East afford to remain isolated from world events. In the Near East today the old and the new stand side by side—the old never fully obliterated, the new not yet having its firm roots in the ground. The educator can reflect only that while education has to do with the present and the future, in the Arab East it cannot be divorced from the past and the cultural heritage.

A rapid glance at the history of cultural migration shows that what is known today as Western or European civilization had its initial start in the Near East. Here it was born and through a few thousand years rose to a certain measure of maturity. Here were initiated, as far as we know, advanced methods of agriculture and irrigation, of building and architecture, the wheel on land and the boat on the sea, the early geometrical and astronomical notions, the first phonetic alphabet, as well as the three important monotheistic religions of the world. From the seventh to the thirteenth centuries the Arab Empire represented the highest civilization in the world. Contact between East and West in the Middle Ages, through the Crusades, through trade, and through the Arab states in Spain and other parts of southwestern Europe, brought Arab-Muslim cultural influences to bear on western Europe, influences which were a factor in bringing about the Renaissance. As Europe took up the torch, the Near East fell prey to a new wave of barbarian and semi-barbarian invasions which obliterated its political and cultural life. Beginning with the nineteenth century, however, there has been a stream of cultural influence from the West back to the East, and today the world is witnessing a new awakening in the Arab world.

CHIEF ASPECTS OF MODERN ARAB LIFE

One of the most outstanding facts about Arab life today is its fundamentally agricultural economy. The overwhelming majority of the people live on the land and subsist by agriculture. A few industries exist which cater to the needs of the country districts. These industries, the remnants of a once-great past, have suffered a tremendous eclipse since machine-made goods from the West began to penetrate the markets of the East. Since World War I some attempts have been made to revive domestic industry on a modern machine basis. There is no doubt that such a development is needed in order to raise the standard of living in the Arab countries and to improve the adverse balance of trade. But even more important to that goal is improvement in agricultural methods and the marketing of produce, the conservation and utilization of water resources both for irrigation and for power, the scientific improvement of livestock, and reforestation. The present very low income of farmers necessitates a low standard of living, which in turn makes it impossible for the people to support local institutions and social services to any adequate degree. The problem of educational expansion is directly dependent upon economic development and reform in each of the countries. It should be remembered that universal elementary education, long an aim in European and American countries, did not become a reality until the industrialization of these countries, or until an extremely efficient agricultural organization like that of Denmark was achieved. The main problem is essentially financial, and its solution will depend upon the rise of the standard of living of the common man in each country and the rise of his average income, so that he can be taxed sufficiently to support a complete educational system. In Egypt, for example, it is estimated that the most modest compulsory education program at the elementary level would cost approximately 24,000,000 Egyptian pounds (\$96,000,000), or 25 percent of the present total annual budget of Egypt. In the other Arab countries the position is even more difficult.

The influence of Islam upon modern Arab life manifests itself

now as an ally of Arab nationalism, and as a factor in the defensive struggle of the Arabs to maintain their identity in the face of Western imperialism. Muslim Arabs, whether deeply religious or not, are justly proud of their religion and heritage and keep to it with an unshakable loyalty. Christian Arabs—a sizable minority in many communities—feel close kinship with the Muslims because of the fact that Arabic is their common language, and the two groups stand side by side in political struggles. Nationalism began in the Arab world in the latter half of the nineteenth century at the hands of literary men who rediscovered the beauties of Arabic literature and the glories of the old Arab Empire. Side by side with these literary men were religious reformers who complained of the autocracy of the Ottoman sultans. In time the two voices tended to blend in protest against the backwardness and corruption of Ottoman rule. Arab nationalism, however, did not begin to make rapid headway until the twentieth century—a story too long and too complicated to tell here. Let it suffice to say that since World War I it has been a force steadily increasing in scope and in power, culminating a few years ago in the formation of the Arab League in an endeavor to bring some unity to the policies and actions of the various Arab states. The Arab League has also been trying to foster better communication among the countries of the Arab world, a more unified economic policy, a closer relationship between the various educational systems, encouraging Arab letters and science, and has been trying to bring about some sort of unified citizenship.

Nationalism has not only been a potent force in the general life of the Arab world, but it has had an influence on its educational systems and practices. The Arab educator usually thinks of schools as the main channel through which the Arab nationalist spirit can be spread and taught to the younger generation. Youth ought to be made proud of the nation's glorious past so as to be spurred to work for the revival of the Arab nation. They ought to be taught the geography of the Arab world and be made conscious of the possibilities of their land. The public school curriculums of all the Arab countries studied stress the

"national" subjects—the Arabic language, religion, literature, history, geography, and civics—even though the rest of the curriculum, the organization of the schools, and methods are usually patterned after Western models.

An atmosphere of change is one of the leading characteristics of modern life in the Near East and the Arab world. The habits, customs, and attitudes of thousands of years are changing. The physical surroundings in the towns and even in the rural districts are being gradually, but surely, changed by new forms of building and architecture, new methods of planting, of landscaping, and new ways of transportation. Along with these changes is coming a great change in ideas, values, and behavior, in character and moral affairs, and changes in art and literature, and in methods of political organization. Travel has played its part, as has the attendance of Arabs in colleges and universities abroad. More recently, the radio, the cinema, and the increasing supply of Western books and periodical literature have also played their role.

As a result, life in the Near East can be said to be in the melting pot. There is what could be called a liquid situation. Will it take any mold, and what type of mold will it be? Can this process of change be controlled or, at least, directed into certain channels? And if it is to be controlled and directed, then by what means? It would seem obvious that part of this direction can be exercised through education, though education alone is not strong enough to shape the things that are to come.

A number of anxious questions are being asked about this cultural change. What will happen to the cultural heritage of the East? Will the Arab world be able to maintain not only its political independence but also its entity as a cultural unit? Will the Near East be culturally swept off its feet, or will the new culture so blend with the old as perhaps to provide a new message and a new contribution by the Near East to world civilization? And what about Western civilization itself? Is it to be taken in its totality, or is it to be studied and scrutinized so that its virtues and its weaknesses may be ascertained? There is at present a pronounced tendency to be so dazzled by the achieve-

ments of Western civilization in the field of industry, of war and armament, and in the field of health and medicine, that it is easy to overlook the less apparent and more intangible forces that have made Western civilization, such as intellectual curiosity of thought and inquiry, the value of human life, the worth of the individual, the equality of woman with man, and many other ideals. Will these more subtle aspects of Western civilization be appreciated well enough so that an intelligent attitude can be taken toward that civilization?

Moreover, Western civilization is coming to the East from many lands and national groups—from America, Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, and many other sources. Naturally, the national rivalries of these countries tend to show themselves culturally also, especially in schools established by various foreign nations in the Arab countries, and by influence wielded upon Arab students in Western institutions. This has produced among the Arabs a house divided against itself—various schools of thought and even of behavior, sometimes one discrediting the other. Is it possible or desirable for the Arabs to take an eclectic point of view and pick from each culture what appears to suit their needs?

Finally, what does all this problem of cultural change in the Near East mean when translated into educational terms? What does it mean in terms of schools, curriculum, and methods? How can education be so shaped as to help modify the Arab tradition without losing its essence?

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS BETWEEN THE TWO WORLD WARS

The student of education in the modern Arab world cannot help but be impressed by the great progress which has been made in the last quarter of a century. Judged by the absolute ideal of universal school attendance and literacy, this progress may, to the superficial observer, seem to fall short of the standard of the civilized world. Considered, however, from the standpoint of the starting point about 1920, the advance, in spite of all the political struggles and economic hindrances, has been very great. In many instances, school attendance has been

trebled and quadrupled, and, in some instances, multiplied by ten or more times. This is true of all the countries surveyed. Not only has there been a quantitative expansion of the educational systems, but also a rise in standards, an establishment and advance of higher education, and some measure of qualitative change in the curriculum. One cannot ignore also the positive advance in the education of girls, a fact which holds great promise for the future. The sending of educational missions abroad has helped to educate a staff of specialists and leaders in the various fields, and all the countries are contemplating plans for increasing the number of missions. Coupled with all this is the rising demand for education among the people—a demand which cannot always be met with the resources at hand. There has also been great improvement in textbooks, in equipment, and in school buildings.

In building up their educational systems, most of the Arab states have abandoned the old form of the common, ungraded Muslim school—the *kuttab*—and established new forms of schools modeled after the Western, graded types. The only exception to this is Egypt, where, along with the modern European type, the former *kuttab* has been developed, improved, and graded to include all the usual subjects of elementary education except a foreign language, but with a greater emphasis upon religion and Arabic. There is also the half-modernized system of Al-Azhar standing by itself. Otherwise, Arab educational systems and educational thinking have been influenced by Western models emanating from the countries with which they have had intimate contact, or which ruled over them as their occupying or mandatory powers. There is also the influence of Western foreign schools which were established in the Arab world, often before the establishment of the public school systems. Thus Egypt started its public school system under French influence, came under British educational influence during the British occupation, and has been following its own path since the end of that occupation, deriving influences from many sources. The Iraqi educational system was restarted by the British and later passed into Iraqi hands, deriving ideas from

French, British, and American sources. The schools of Lebanon and Syria are based upon the French system, though Syria broke loose recently. The schools of Palestine (at the time of survey by the American Council commission) were completely separate for Arabs and Jews, the Arab system based upon the English.

It is a source of no wonder, therefore, that education in the various countries shows many signs of imitation of Western models. Now that large public school systems have been established in the Arab countries, however, it becomes a pressing problem to scrutinize these Western models and their suitability for the needs of Arab countries. This has not yet been done to any marked degree. The reason is largely the fact that most of the educational systems are too recent to have had the evolution which would make for their adaptation to their new environment. A second reason is the lack of educationally trained personnel in the various ministries of education in the Arab world. For the most part, educational policies are being shaped by people who have had some form of higher education but who have had little acquaintance with educational philosophy, with educational psychology, with modern techniques of educational methods and curriculum construction, and the various problems of educational administration and organization. Too often, educational administration is carried on in an amateurish fashion, which is wasteful of time, effort, and funds. New buildings are sometimes constructed so poorly that they fall into ruin within a decade or two, and there is hardly any computation of a standard cost per unit of classroom or school. No standardized mental and achievement tests as yet exist in the Arab world, so that it is difficult to follow scientifically the progress of students, to diagnose their abilities or deficiencies, and to make adequate provision for their needs. Hundreds of trained men and women are needed throughout the Arab world to occupy key positions in educational administration, in the teachers colleges, and in important strategic schools. Along with the steps that need to be taken for the training of such personnel, there is need for establishing research centers in education and psychology to study specific problems facing each country.

CENTRALIZED SYSTEMS

The present study has clearly shown that education in the Arab states is almost completely centralized. Policies, curriculums, textbooks, plans for expansion, examinations, and certificates are all handed down from the central offices—the ministries of education. Under the central office there are usually regional offices which execute the orders of the central office and exercise a limited influence on the shaping of educational policies. The local communities have little to say about courses of study, books, methods, the appointment of teachers, and, in actual fact, contribute little money or effort toward the maintenance of their own local schools. Little local taxation for schools exists. The school is not conceived of as a part of the community but as a part of government which is something different from the people.

The reason for this state of affairs is, in part, the fact that *all* government and public institutions are centralized. Even when local councils exist, they do not have the strength that they have in Western countries. But there is still a deeper reason. The best talents are usually concentrated in the capitals, and the idea prevails that it is up to the intelligensia to lead the way in the regeneration and development of the country. Since centralization prevails in all the departments of government, it is naturally difficult to decentralize educational administration. Yet this is greatly needed, at least to a degree. It is needed in order to arouse more interest by the people in the education of their own children. It is needed for levying local taxes and providing local funds for the better and wider development of schools. Today schools have to secure almost everything from the central government—buildings, desks, teachers' salaries, even library books. Local responsibility is also needed in order to establish a bond between the school and the community, so that the school can better influence the life of the community and the community provide a stimulus for the activity of the school.

Attempts have been made in some of the countries toward throwing some of the responsibility for education on the shoulders of local authorities. In Egypt provincial councils were asked to bear the cost of the compulsory schools, but not enough

taxing power was granted these councils to enable them to support the schools, and the main burden, therefore, fell again on the central treasury. In Palestine the government has insisted that the Arab villages provide the buildings for the schools, and local councils have been empowered to levy taxes for the schools. As a result a large number of schools were built and even teachers employed by the local authorities. While educational facilities are admitted to be still inadequate, throwing responsibility on the local communities has had a beneficial effect in arousing in them a sense of responsibility for education. In Iraq the establishment of local councils has recently been written into law, and it is not possible to predict how this scheme will operate. In Syria responsibility for village school buildings has also been laid upon local authorities. These measures are still in their infancy and are far from being perfect.

THE LIQUIDATION OF ILLITERACY

Perhaps the most fundamental educational problem facing the Arab world today is the double problem of putting every child of elementary school age in school and of liquidating adult illiteracy. The Arab states have arrived at various points along the road toward the solution of this problem. Table 1 gives a general idea of the relative educational progress in each of the countries studied.

It will be seen that Lebanon has put into elementary school the largest percentage of its school-age population. Following

TABLE 1
PROPORTION OF CHILDREN IN SCHOOLS IN SIX ARAB COUNTRIES
IN THE PERIOD 1942-45

Country	Estimated Population	Estimated Population of Elementary-School Age*	Number Attending Elementary Schools	Percentage of Appropriate Age-Group in School
Egypt	18,000,000	2,870,000	1,360,000	47.4
Iraq	4,500,000	675,000	135,000	20.0
Syria	3,000,000	375,000	148,000	39.4
Lebanon	1,100,000	165,000	120,000	72.7
Transjordan ...	400,000	50,000	14,000	28.0
Palestine (Arab)	1,250,000	207,000	107,000	51.6

*Estimates of the elementary-school-age population for all countries are based upon the age-distribution tables of the 1937 census for Egypt. Similar distribution figures were not available for the other countries.

in order are Palestine, Egypt, Syria, Transjordan, and Iraq. It would seem that Lebanon has within its grasp the stamping-out of illiteracy among the rising generation, provided an active policy is pursued by its Ministry of Education. Palestine would come next, where it is estimated by a responsible authority that the present education budget would have to be doubled if compulsory attendance in elementary schools were enforced. In the other countries the position is more difficult because of the long road to be traveled and lack of funds.

In some of the Arab countries universal education is hampered by other factors. The social organization of a large section of the population, which is tribal, and the sparsity of the population in many regions slow down the spread of education. The liquidation of illiteracy among adults is an even more difficult problem. In the preoccupation with the education of the young, not much effective work has been done for adults. In Iraq a vigorous movement for the liquidation of illiteracy started in 1922 but had so slowed down by 1930 that it was taken over by the Ministry of Education as one of its routine activities in evening schools in towns and villages. Now some 10,000 students of all ages receive a small amount of instruction in these schools. In Egypt the Ministry of Social Affairs was launching a large program for fighting illiteracy in 1945-46. It is too early to judge its results. In other Arab states little was being done in this field.

WHAT TYPE OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IS NEEDED? .

It must be asked: What type of elementary school and what types of curriculums are best calculated to improve the life of the masses, and indeed of all the people? At the present time elementary schools in each country have one common course of study prescribed by the central authorities.²

The usual course of study is to a large extent bookish and academic, borrowed from abroad, and designed to prepare for the passing of examinations. For the most part the only adaptation to local needs seems to be the teaching of Arabic and of the history and geography of the Arab lands, particularly of

² Egypt has several, one for each type of elementary or primary school, all prescribed by the Ministry of Education.

the land in which the school happens to be. To this is added some instruction in health, again of the bookish type, and in the village schools some instruction in agriculture. For this latter there is little practical application except in Palestine and, more recently, in a few schools in Egypt and Transjordan. The best development along this line has undoubtedly been in the Arab system in Palestine where school gardens have been established in 238 schools and practical instruction in agriculture is given to the pupils of grades five through seven. The practical training varies with the locality. While fruit-raising may be emphasized in one environment, vegetables, cereals, or beekeeping, or a combination of these may be emphasized in another. There is certainly a need in all of the Arab world to examine carefully the type or types of elementary schools that fit the rural environment of the large majority of the population, that would help raise the standard of agriculture, of health, of social consciousness, of citizenship, and of character. Even though such an ideal has been spoken of before by some Arab educators who have studied abroad, it has not yet been translated into action.

In all of the countries studied it was found that the number of pupils eliminated in the successive grades of the elementary school was large. In many places where compulsory education was supposedly in effect, it was apparent that the majority of the children did not average more than two or two and one-half years of school, and, therefore, ran the danger of reverting to illiteracy after leaving school. In some cases, as in Egypt, while hundreds of thousands of pupils were registered in the first grade of the compulsory schools, only a few thousands were found in the fifth grade. In Iraq, Transjordan, and Syria, while the proportion of children who stayed in school was higher, no more than 5 to 10 percent of the total student body was in the upper grade. In Lebanon a similar but perhaps not as pronounced a situation, seems to prevail. In Palestine, elimination in the first four years is comparatively small, but registration begins to drop sharply after the fourth grade. Some of this is accomplished by design on the part of education authorities, owing to lack of places in the schools. Some of the elimination of pupils is due in part to social and economic forces—but it

may also be due to the types of curriculums and methods followed. These are too dry and unattractive to the child and often to the parents. The courses of study are, as a rule, too filled with logically organized subject matter unrelated to the environment and too heavily loaded and difficult for the average student to master. This results in a large percentage of failure and retardation and tends to keep the lower grades overcrowded, while depleting the number of pupils in the upper grades. The problem of elimination, therefore, has its bearing not only on the measures to be taken to enforce attendance, but also on the type of curriculum to be followed.

Too often it is assumed that a high standard must be maintained in elementary schools. Those pupils who cannot attain that standard are consciously or unconsciously thought of as unworthy, and, therefore, are weeded out. The idea of fitting curriculums and standards to the capacity of pupils, though often admitted in theory, does not find much application in practice. It happens, therefore, that those who pass through the sieve of examinations are the minority that go on to further education only to gravitate, for the most part, toward government and "white collar" jobs. The other students can be said to fall into three groups: (1) Those students who will keep on trying and who, therefore, take a longer time in passing from grade to grade, and who are generally considered the laggards and misfits in the upper elementary classes and the secondary schools; (2) those who drop out in the upper elementary classes or in the secondary schools but who think of themselves as too well educated to work with their hands; and (3) those who drop out early in their school life, often revert to illiteracy, and become farmers, laborers, and artisans. Thus, a certain stratification results where skilled, as well as unskilled, labor becomes the province only of the dullards who cannot go through school and attain a higher standing.

It would seem evident that the elementary course of study should be modified so as to be more in agreement with the needs of the environment on the one hand, and of the individual pupils on the other. The uniformity of the elementary course of study is, however, defended on national grounds. It is argued

that the country is in urgent need of a united citizenry and that it is the business of the school to give a unified course of study that will help to produce it. While this aim is a legitimate one, and while there is certainly a need for greater unity among the citizens of the Arab world, it does not follow that this can be achieved by rigidly setting down courses.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

In the secondary schools the same tendencies prevail. All over the Arab world the only type of secondary school that exists is the academic secondary school. Division of the course into scientific and literary, and, sometimes, into mathematical and biological sections is almost the maximum of variety attempted. These schools are, therefore, of the college-preparatory type. The only exception is a commercial secondary school in Baghdad, the certificate of which is accepted for purposes of admission to some higher institutions. In Iraq and in some other countries graduates of some of the vocational schools thought of as equivalent to secondary schools may continue their education in higher schools of the *same type*, but this is not usually the case.

Thus, there is some preferential treatment of academic secondary school graduates which creates an attitude in all concerned—whether school authority, parent, or pupil—that this is a superior kind of education, which it is the ambition of every parent to give his child. As a rule, therefore, it is students with lower abilities who are squeezed out of academic schools and who take refuge in the vocational schools. Vocational education thus carries a stamp which does not attract students to it. This is one of the factors which has operated to make it largely unsuccessful in the various countries of the Arab world. In some of the Arab countries this problem has received some thought, notably in Iraq, where, for some time, the creation of a number of parallel secondary courses with a vocational bias—commercial, agricultural, technical, and home economics—has been advocated. It has, however, met with strenuous opposition from the advocates of the unity of courses of study.

In general, it may be said that secondary education is available to most of those who can graduate from elementary school,

although the cost of maintenance away from home may be a barrier for many village youth who are not at the top in the public examination. Iraq, Syria, and Egypt have established systems of exemptions from fees on the basis of economic need or academic achievement, or both, which may exempt wholly or partially from 25 to 40 percent of the student body. The annual fees at their highest are rather low: in Iraq, \$18,³ and in Syria, \$27.30. They are considerably higher in Egypt—\$80. In Palestine and Transjordan provision for public secondary education is extremely limited. Under a very stringent method of selection, only the most capable of the students can finish their secondary education in the three complete public secondary schools that exist in Arab Palestine. For the poorer students a system of scholarships exists, but the scope of secondary education is so limited as to make its availability to the youth of the country almost insignificant. In 1945-46 Transjordan maintained only one complete secondary school; two others, however, were on the point of being completed. In Lebanon reliance has been laid on private and foreign secondary schools, and the Ministry of Education maintains no complete secondary school. The poor boy or girl of Lebanon finds it exceedingly difficult to complete his secondary education, although it is surprising how many sacrifices and privations Lebanese parents are willing to undergo in order to send their children through secondary schools. A system of public secondary schools or, at least, of public scholarships for promising students is sorely needed.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

As has been intimated above, vocational education is perhaps the least successful aspect of education in the Arab world. On the whole it can be said that vocational schools are not popular, and in many instances there is difficulty getting recruits to fill the classes even moderately. The reasons for this are many, though no scientific study of them has been made. Perhaps the most fundamental among them is the fact that industry is still in its infancy in the Arab world. As the cottage hand trades have been waging a losing fight with modern Western machine-

³ Iraq has since abolished fees in the secondary schools.

made products, so has there been an industrial dislocation in the various Arab countries. The new industry based on machinery is beginning to make its appearance, but, naturally, the demand for skilled industrial workers is not great, nor is the appreciation for the preparation of such workers. The old apprenticeship system continues, using illiterate boys as the principal source of supply. Workers so trained are willing to accept lower wages than are the graduates of trade or technical schools. As they have the more practical kind of training in the specific industry, they are usually more favored in finding jobs than is the literate student who has combined theory with limited practice.

Among the reasons for the nonpopularity of vocational education is the fact that secondary school graduates are reasonably sure of a steady income with no strenuous work to soil their hands. Since the government official in the past has enjoyed a great deal of prestige, government jobs are coveted. It follows that the academic studies leading their graduates to government jobs become the more popular. Even the educational authorities themselves have paid much less attention to vocational education, and have, consciously or unconsciously, held it in somewhat lower esteem, though often acknowledging the necessity for it.

Other factors have impeded the progress of vocational education in some countries. In Iraq, vocational school students are discriminated against in military service—service of secondary school students is postponed until their graduation, when they receive reserve-officers training for nine months; vocational school students have to serve for two years as privates.

A further hindrance to the development of vocational education is the lack of experts. The problem is crucial in the Arab world because upon vocational education depends, very largely, the development of the resources of the countries, the efficient exploitation of the land, and the training of skilled workers for industries. Some progress has been achieved in Egypt, where fairly successful vocational schools of various levels—elementary, intermediate, and higher—exist.

THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

The problem of the expansion of elementary education in the

six Arab countries naturally creates the problem of the preparation of teachers in adequate numbers for the system. Radical differences exist among the countries in the level of preparation and the number of trained teachers they produce. Transjordan has no teacher-training institution. In Palestine and Lebanon the number of teachers graduated from normal schools and teachers colleges is extremely small. Accordingly, recourse has been had to appointing as teachers, graduates of secondary schools and even individuals of much less education. Syria has recently recognized the problem and increased the capacity of its teacher-training institutions, though the existing facilities are still short of the need. Egypt and Iraq are the only two countries that are training elementary and primary school teachers in more or less adequate numbers.

The level at which elementary and primary school teachers are being prepared also differs radically. In the dual system of elementary and primary education in Egypt, primary school teachers have, for many years, been prepared on a four-year college basis and, in certain instances, with two years of professional study beyond college work. More recently, a two-year course above the general secondary certificate has been instituted; later lengthened to three years. On the other hand, elementary school teachers receive an academic and professional training that is hardly equivalent to secondary education. In Palestine two years of academic and professional training beyond the secondary school are a standard practice for men teachers, while women teachers for city schools have thus far received a training of only one year beyond secondary school. Rural-school women teachers are of a much lower standard, and no school for the training of rural men teachers exists. In Lebanon two years of training are given to both men and women in a course that is hardly equivalent to Lebanese secondary education. In Syria the new training scheme, which is likely to become general, is one of three years above intermediate school. In Iraq rural teachers are trained in special institutions which are roughly equivalent to secondary schools, while city teachers receive a training equivalent to one or two years above secondary schools. Thus, the education of teachers for the public schools

in the Arab states ranges from a minimum that is less than a secondary school certificate to a maximum of two years beyond college work.

On the qualitative side, greater attention should be given to the preparation of rural-school teachers. The current practice of sending the poorest teachers to the countryside should be stopped. If it is true that the economy of all these countries depends largely on the development of their agricultural resources, then rural life needs to be reconstructed. In this reconstruction a great role can be played by a special kind of rural school that pays adequate attention to the needs of its environment. Such a pioneering school needs well-prepared teachers. Teachers are needed for the rural districts who not only master the common subjects but who also have an adequate acquaintance with agriculture and with the social and health problems of the countryside.

Iraq and Palestine are the only countries which have tried to grapple with this problem. Special rural-teachers colleges have been established in Iraq where agricultural and health training are given to the students along with academic subjects. Students are usually recruited from the countryside itself. The general plan seems to be correct, but it is feared that the way it is being handled, largely due to the lack of well-trained staffs in the teachers colleges, the quality of teachers that is wanted for the rural schools of Iraq is not being obtained.

The problem resolves itself into that of staffing the teachers colleges with men of vision and of adequate professional education. For the present, most of the staff of the teachers colleges are either former teachers of secondary schools or people who are academically but not professionally trained. The teachers colleges need not only specialists in education, but also specialists in sociology who can conduct original research in the social problems of their country. In addition, there is a great demand for teachers of the practical subjects, such as agriculture, manual arts and crafts, physical education, and some of the fine arts, such as music, art, dance, and rhythm. Many of the teachers colleges are sadly lacking in this respect.

In the preparation of secondary school teachers, Iraq has maintained a four- or five-year course above secondary school for men and women, which combines academic training with the professional. Egypt followed the same system down to 1930 and later replaced it with the institutes of education, which give two years of professional training beyond college work. For the rest, reliance in all the Arab world for recruiting secondary teachers has been on college or university graduates who are, for the most part, only academically trained. Graduates of the American University of Beirut and at Cairo have been a common source of recruiting, together with some graduates of French, British, and American universities. Many secondary school teachers do not have university training. Syria recently established a higher teachers college following roughly the lines of the Higher Teachers College in Iraq, while Egypt is re-establishing the higher teachers college for preparing teachers of science and mathematics.

Another angle of the problem of the preparation of teachers is their training in service. Little organized, regular, and constant effort is being exerted in this direction in any of the countries studied. Here and there a summer training course or evening classes are held. The teachers, therefore, tend to sink gradually in professional competence, easily fall behind the times, and lose morale. School inspection is rarely directed toward improving the knowledge of the teacher. Nor are school principals usually much better trained than their fellow-teachers. Plans are needed in all the countries for regular summer and full-year courses for teachers, and for the training of capable principals who can help their teachers improve themselves. Publications for the benefit of teachers are also needed.

It is not possible in this condensation to include a rather extensive treatment of the problems of foreign language teaching, of the large number and variety of foreign schools in the Arab world in their relation to national education, and of the problem of the unity of outlook of Arab citizens through education. The commission concluded that the public school systems are the main medium for bringing about that unity.

AN ARAB NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

To say that the public school system is to be the main unifying factor in the Arab world is to raise the questions: What kind of a public school system? Is there to be one educational system—one national system—for all Arabs, or many systems, one for each country? What constitutes a national system of education? These are difficult questions to answer.

Each of the countries studied has developed a public school system for the education of its children—a national system in the sense that it covers all the schools of that nation. But, unfortunately, it does not cover all the children of the nation. To put every child of school age in school, to provide him with a curriculum that fits his needs and those of the country, and to open for him the possibilities for further study, are still, to a considerable extent, matters of the future.

The Arab countries are still experimenting with various types of educational organization. The present types of organization resemble each other in the fact that they are all highly centralized, but the happy medium of cooperation between local and central authorities in educational matters is still unrealized.

It is not surprising that the educational systems in the Arab countries reflect unsettled conditions. Not until a new level of cultural, political, and economic stability is brought about will Arab education find its rock bottom and will educators be able to build a system relatively adequate for Arab needs—a system which will reflect the genius and the aspirations of the Arabs.

As regards the unity of Arab education some rather superficial discussions of it have been voiced occasionally in the press and in public announcements. It is glibly asserted that schools all over the Arab world should follow the same curriculum without realization of the stifling influence such a policy would have on the development of Arab education and Arab mentality. Already, however, there are signs that such a course would not prove satisfactory to the various educational and political leaders of the respective Arab countries. Each country has more or less struck out in its own direction, though often taking inspiration from the same source. Certain patterns have been developed,

and certain traditions, though recent, have begun to take shape. Moreover, there are local needs for each country which are bound to affect education in that country and would, therefore, make for some measure of variety between the school systems.

In the opinion of the present writer, this variety will, in the long run, be a point of strength, rather than weakness, in Arab education because it will provide that freedom of experimentation and of striking out in new directions which is so vital to the growth of any educational system. The fact that French and American influences are so pronounced in Lebanon, British influence in Palestine, French and British in Egypt, and American and British in Iraq, however deplored by some, may provide one of the broad bases that is needed for developing in the future a well-rounded Arab national system. In the long run, it is the aspects of these foreign influences which meet the needs of the countries that are most likely to survive, while the others will be discarded; and, in the long run, it is the steps that are taken by each country alone or in cooperation with the others to meet its problems as they arise that will finally result in a system that will be truly national.

Some measure of unity is undoubtedly essential, but care must be taken that the mold in which this unity is cast is not too rigid and will not fit Arab education into a straitjacket that will check its healthy growth. It is not essential that educational organization in all the Arab states shall be identical in all its detail, but some measure of approximation should be striven for which would make the systems easily translatable and thus facilitate the transfer of students from one country to another. Unity should, rather, express itself in mutual recognition of diplomas, certificates, and degrees on the broadest possible basis, in exchange of views through publications and conferences, in exchange of teachers and professors, and in an anxious solicitude for the education of united citizens, conscious of the sense of kinship that ties them together. Unity should be that of spirit, of goals, and of basic principles, rather than unity in all matters of detail. A unity with variety should be the motto of Arab education.

The Operation of a Selective Admissions Program in a Teachers College

By ROSCOE L. WEST

WHAT KIND OF PERSON makes a good teacher? This is obviously a question that should be answered before we can set up criteria for selecting persons to enter training to be teachers. Innumerable studies have been made concerning the qualities of a good teacher. In general, it would seem fair to say that we think such a teacher should have (1) physical vigor and freedom from those physical defects that would interfere with successful work; (2) intellectual capacity which will make possible sound and adequate scholarship to the end that the teacher will be a well-educated person in a general sense and also be well prepared in the fields which that teacher will handle; (3) be emotionally well balanced and free from psychological disturbances; and (4) have personality traits which will enable him to mix well with people, inspire pupils to satisfactory accomplishment, and carry out his duties successfully.

The difficulty seems to be, however, that the various qualities and abilities needed may exist in infinite combinations so that no one can tell just what particular lack may vitiate the possession of a high degree of accomplishment in other factors. A person may have items 1 and 2 and 3 and be so lacking in 4 that he is a failure as a teacher. On the other hand, the public sometimes generalizes to the effect that intellectual ability is not important but that other personality factors are the major factors that count.

For example, the notice of the national "Best Teacher Contest" sponsored by the Quiz Kids has the following paragraph: "It was discovered that such personality traits as a sense of humor, a cooperative, democratic attitude, and consideration for the individual are more important in a good teacher than just plain book learning."

Now we might agree that these traits are very important, and we know that once in a while we find a highly intellectual person

who does not have such traits, but certainly we all know plenty of teachers who are able to combine scholarship with desirable personality traits. Rather than assume that a teacher can be satisfactory if she has such traits and low scholarship, it would be sounder to plug for the teacher who can make the combination. And, of course, there are all kinds of degrees of the combinations that can be made. How far below a certain standard can a teacher go in a certain factor and still be successful if she has many other factors to a high degree?

The operation of a selective admissions program in a state teachers college rests on the principle that teaching is a difficult art dependent upon a combination of several factors and that by no means all of those persons who are capable of doing college work are fitted to be good teachers. It has been difficult to apply this principle in many states because of the theory that any graduate of a high school is entitled to admission to a state-supported institution. In such states, therefore, little has been done to develop criteria for initial selection at the time of college entrance. Without doubt, these states have accomplished much in guidance of students after entrance and in eliminating those most obviously unfitted for teaching. In New Jersey the principle of the right of the state to select students for teacher education has been recognized ever since the establishment of the first normal school in the state at Trenton in 1855. In the first annual report of the school for the year 1855-56 occurs the following statements:

By the provisions of the Act for establishing the Normal School, each of the Town Superintendents—nearly or quite one hundred and eighty in number—is authorized to recommend four candidates for examination and admission to the institution each year. These candidates, of whom there might be seven hundred and over, may then appear before the Board for examination, and those who are found qualified may receive a certificate of such qualification, and be admitted into the School whenever vacancies may occur for their respective districts. As the School is limited to two hundred and forty pupils, it is obvious that this course might lead to great confusion and inconvenience. Some modification of this plan may be required in the future, and your attention is respectfully called to the subject at this time.

During the succeeding years the relationship between the sup-

ply of teachers and the numbers needed necessarily affected the operation of the general principle. At certain periods another idea was introduced, namely, that the quota in the normal school from each county of the state should bear a definite relationship to the population, and this was regulated by stipulating that the number admitted should be six times the number of representatives in the legislature. If not enough came from any one county, then these vacancies could be assigned to another county, but it is evident that the people wished to see to it that the rural counties should have their proper proportion of students and should not be overpowered by the urban counties. Even here, however, the principle of a quota was recognized.

In 1914 the catalog shows that these county quotas were being followed. Graduates of high schools were admitted on certificate. Persons claiming equivalence of a four-year high school course were given entrance examinations.

During the First World War there was a decline in the enrollment in the normal schools and a shortage of teachers so that there was not much selection; but after the war ended, there was criticism in the state board of education to the effect that candidates for admission from the high schools were deficient in the common subjects of arithmetic, spelling, and grammar. Consequently, a resolution was passed in 1922, providing that: "Beginning with the entering class of September 1922, the candidates who present as entrance requirements graduation from an approved high school or private secondary school approved by the State Board of Education, shall, in addition thereto, be examined in arithmetic, spelling, English grammar and composition under direction of the principals of the respective schools, and shall be given such tests for general intelligence as the principals may deem wise and proper."

This resulted in a system of examinations which forced the high schools to conduct review classes in these subjects. It was soon recognized that this plan had disadvantages, as the high school principals would not recommend those who had not taken this review work, and it did not recognize the regular work performed by the students in their ordinary high school subjects.

Consequently, in 1929 the plan was changed and a new plan has been developed during the past twenty years under the direction of the state department of education with advice and assistance by a committee from the faculties of all the six teachers colleges of the state.

In 1929 the required examinations were English, American history, and general mathematics. The committee from the teachers colleges constructed most of the entrance tests given between 1929 and 1937. In 1936 a science test was added to the battery. From 1938 to date the tests used have been usually purchased from the Cooperative Test Service or from a similar organization. A speech test was added in 1938, which was constructed by the head of the speech department of the Trenton State Teachers College, Dr. Effie G. Kuhn.

From 1941 definite weight has been given to the rank in high school class by quarters, to personality rating from the high school, and to a personal interview rating given at the college.

Perhaps the best way to understand the admissions program of the Trenton Teachers College is to follow the case of a hypothetical student from the time of his original application to his acceptance.

HYPOTHETICAL CASE OF STUDENT APPLYING FOR ADMISSION
TO THE NEW JERSEY STATE TEACHERS
COLLEGE AT TRENTON

1. Prospective student's name and address are received by the registrar—sent by high school counselor, friend, or by student himself.
2. Catalog showing curriculums offered, faculty, tuition and other expenses, financial aids, etc., is sent to interested prospect with a preliminary application blank.
3. When the preliminary application is returned to the registrar, the candidate is registered in the "active" file and is sent a letter outlining procedure, and the following blanks to be filed before being eligible for the entrance examinations:
 - a) "Application for admission" to be completed in candidate's own handwriting. This application has on it the usual information concerning the student's family, education, sources of income, school organizations, personal interests, books and magazines read, etc. In addition it requires:
 - (1) A three-hundred-word autobiography

- (2) Photograph
- (3) Two character testimonials
- (4) Parent's verification
- b) Two health blanks:
 - (1) One filed by prospective student himself (form different for men and women applicants)
 - (2) One executed by medical doctor

If there is anything on the health blanks which indicates any kind of special condition, the candidate is asked to come to the college for an examination by the college physician before taking the entrance examinations in April. A candidate may be excluded on the basis of the health record alone if it is certain that there are factors here that would prevent the candidate from being an efficient teacher.

4. With application materials, a blank giving information about state scholarships (available to 10 percent of each entering class) is sent for candidate's information.

5. To the high school principal of the candidate is sent a certificate of high school credits for record of high school standing for ninth, tenth, eleventh, and first half of twelfth year. The Personality Rating Scale also sent is checked by the high school adviser or principal. On this scale a candidate is rated 1-2-3-4-5, with adjective descriptions of the meaning of these ratings, on the following items:

Social acceptability	Initiative
Attitude toward school	Industry
Cooperativeness	Leadership
Openmindedness	Emotional control
Dependability	Sense of humor

On the basis of the distribution of scores in all the schools of the state, a table of equivalent Probable Deviation scores to the total scores is established and the proper score assigned to the candidate.

6. The high school record is checked to see if the candidate fulfills the courses required in the college curriculum. The college has attempted to take a middle-ground stand between the old-fashioned prescription of high school subjects and the extremely liberal point of view which would not require the completion of any particular sequence of work in high school for any particular curriculum. In following out this philosophy, New Jersey requires all candidates to present eight units of high school work, as follows:

English—4 units

Mathematics (may be general mathematics, or elementary algebra; or business arithmetic for applicant to the physical education and business education curriculums)—1 unit

American history and problems of democracy—1 unit

Science (may be general science)—1 unit

Additional history, or additional science, or additional mathematics—
1 unit

Additional variables by curriculums are as follows:

Elementary, secondary, kindergarten-primary, and music curriculums

From history, science, mathematics, foreign language—4 units

Free electives—3 units

(Nothing less than 2 units in foreign language will be credited.)

Business education curriculum

From business education subjects—4 units

Free electives—3 units

Applicants should have credit for satisfactorily completing one year each of bookkeeping, typewriting, and shorthand prior to admission to the college.

Health and physical education curriculum

Science (chemistry preferred)—1 unit

From history, science, mathematics, foreign language—3 units

Free electives—3 units

Industrial arts curriculum

From history, science, mathematics, foreign language—2 units

Industrial arts, including mechanical drawing—2 units

Free electives—3 units

On the final rating the candidate is assigned a Probable Deviation rating for the respective quarter of the high school class, that is, 67 for the highest quarter, 57 for upper middle quarter, 45 for lower middle quarter, and 33 for lowest quarter.

7. The candidate is given an appointment to come to the college for a personal interview and speech test with the head of department or the registrar.

- a) The speech test is a test requiring the reading of 80 sentences in which there are particular words which are checked by the examiner. This test is standardized so that a Probable Deviation score can be assigned to the raw score made by the candidate.

A person who has such serious deficiencies in speech as to be deemed unsatisfactory as a teacher may be refused entrance, even though his records on the objective entrance examinations are high.

- b) The interview with the head of department or other member of the college faculty is recorded on an interview rating scale, on which the candidate is rated from 0 to 10 on the following items:

General appearance

Voice

Use of oral English

Manner and poise

Responsiveness during interview
 Interest in college program
 Interest and taste in the arts
 Interest in people
 Interest in vocational choice
 Judicial attitude

Descriptions are contained on the scale to indicate the differences between poor, average, and excellent in connection with each quality. Efforts are also made by conference to standardize the ratings of different members of the faculty. This scale is also standardized in accordance with the ratings given by all the schools of the state so that a Probable Deviation score can be assigned to the raw score achieved by the applicant.

- c) If the applicant wishes to enter the music curriculum, he is also required to make an appointment with the head of the music department, who gives a three-hour written and practical test in music in order to demonstrate proficiency in that field. After the final entrance examinations are given, a candidate who is high on the objective examinations but low on the music test may be refused admission to the music curriculum but may be given opportunity to enter another curriculum if he so desires.
- d) Applicants for other special departments—business education, industrial arts, health and physical education—are required to meet department heads to prove aptitude for work in the special fields.

8. As blanks are returned by candidates, they are checked and filed in individual folders. As soon as all forms have been completed, the candidate is notified that he is eligible for the entrance examinations.

9. Entrance examinations are given in English, reading comprehension, history, mathematics, and science, usually in the last week of April.

10. The distribution of all raw scores on entrance examinations, high school personality rating, interview rating, are sent to the state department of education, where the scores for all six of the teachers colleges are combined and statistical values computed and returned to the colleges.

11. The several items being considered are given the following weights:

Quarter in high school class	2
High school personality rating	1
College interview rating	1
Speech test	$\frac{1}{2}$
English	1
Reading comprehension	$1\frac{1}{2}$
History	1
Mathematics	1
Science	1

12. Quotas are determined for each curriculum in accordance with placement possibilities, available faculty, and equipment. The college president reports entrance examination results to the state commissioner of education with recommendations for acceptance or rejection. Usually candidates with the highest records are accepted. Occasionally in a department like music or health and physical education, a candidate with a lower record in the entrance examinations is recommended for acceptance if he has demonstrated exceptional ability in the particular field to which he is seeking admission. Final decision can be made legally by the state commissioner of education, or changes authorized in the president's recommendations, if in the opinion of the commissioner such changes are warranted.

In 1947, 495 people took the examinations and 279 were certified for entrance. Of these, 229 actually entered in September. In 1948, 522 people took the examinations, 331 were certified for entrance, and 259 actually entered in September, as indicated in Table 1:

TABLE 1

Curriculum	Desired Quota	Examined	Certified for Entrance	Entered
Elementary	60	108	71	53
Kindergarten-primary	45	76	50	44
Secondary	55	117	84	62
Business education	30	42	36	32
Health & physical education	40	111	52	38
Industrial arts	20	36	22	18
Music	15	32	16	12
Total.....	265	522	331	259

13. As soon as the decision of the commissioner of education is received, notices of acceptance or rejection are sent to applicants.

14. Freshman registrations, meetings, and orientation are held the first two days of college in September.

Various checks and evaluation criteria have been used over the years to determine whether or not the selective admission system is really producing the type of student which the college wishes to secure. Some of these are as follows:

1. The American Council Psychological Examination for College Freshmen has been given in September after students enter. For several years prior to 1941 the median student at the college was between the 60th and 67th percentile of the total distribution of the American Council examination in the country. Although this dropped somewhat in the years 1942 to 1946, it came back to 66th percentile in 1947.

2. A comparison of the average raw scores made on the American Council examination by freshmen in Trenton for a ten-year period from 1935 to 1944 shows an average of 4.31 points on the raw score above the record of four-year liberal arts colleges reported by the American Council examination and 16.19 above the record of the other teachers colleges reported.

3. A comparison of the means of scaled scores for students selected for entrance to the State Teachers College at Trenton in 1947 and national norms was as follows:

Subject	Trenton Mean	Norm
English	55.81	50
American history	53.92	50
Mathematics for grades 7, 8, 9.	61.44	50
General science	60.02	50
Reading	55.36	50

These figures indicate that the freshmen at Trenton in 1947 were considerably above the national norm which was secured from students of universities and liberal arts colleges.

4. In general, the plan has succeeded in selecting an increasing number of students from the highest quarter of the high school classes. In 1934, 44.6 percent came from the highest quarter, with 75.3 percent from the upper half. The percentage from the highest quarter steadily increased to 71.4 in 1940, with 91.8 in the upper half. In 1948 the percentage in the highest quarter was 56.4 with 88.3 percent in the upper half. The average for the past five years is 53.5 percent in the highest quarter and 88.4 percent in the upper half.

5. Several studies of the correlation between the entrance requirements and the marks of students for the entire four years indicate this correlation is between .65 and .72. The most predictive variables seem to have been English, science, high school personality rating, history, high school standing, and mathematics. The least predictive variables seem to be the interview at the college and the oral English test.

A diagnosis of the strengths and weaknesses of the selective process leads to the following conclusions:

1. Tests for the measurement of general education are fairly adequate, as shown by the scores of the entrants.

2. The American Council Psychological Examination is adequate for a measure of scholastic aptitude.

3. Generally speaking, the superintendents of schools are satisfied with the graduates. The average rating given by superintendents at the end of one year of teaching is "B." Both personal and professional qualities are included on the rating sheet sent out by the college.

The following seem to be the chief unsolved problems in connection with the system:

1. More objective requirements and tests should be made for selection in special fields.

2. Some method should be devised that would supplement the mathematical selection of students. Case histories of a small number of entrants who have found difficulty in meeting the requirements of the college show that *one* weakness, not identified by the entrance requirements, may be the deciding factor in the student's failure.

3. Selection of students should include recruitment. A plan that could be used by the state department of education would be effective.

a) Cooperation of elementary and high school principals could be obtained in making a list of pupils with the best scholarship and personality records in the grades surveyed.

b) Various methods could be used to acquaint these young pupils with the great possibilities and satisfactions in teaching. Expense should not be spared in going to the public schools for interviews or in having the young people come to the college for meetings. Literature by competent public school teachers could be mailed to the pupils on this list. The value in working with such a group is that the contact is made and the advice is given before the pupil has chosen his occupation. The grades suggested for study are the seventh, eighth, and ninth.

4. If there is no method at present for including a measure of emotional balance in the entrance requirements, there should be more definite help in guidance for the advisers in the college.

It is impossible to expect that all students selected for admission to the teachers college will be successful as teachers. Undoubtedly there will always be "surprise successes" and "surprise failures," but some of the failures will be eliminated when we know more concerning the identification of personal and emotional factors which are so important in teaching. Possession of some of these qualities is so important that without them a person may fail as a teacher even though he has exceptional intelligence and high academic accomplishment. The ultimate aim is obviously to secure persons who can combine good health and academic ability with social poise and normal emotional adjustment.

Although the experience of the last twenty years indicates that considerable success has been achieved in securing students of high caliber, the college recognizes that much additional study is needed to improve the selective admissions process. Additional data are needed concerning the relationship of the factors used with actual success in teaching. This is an extremely difficult problem, but should be studied. As is well known, the whole field of personality and emotional adjustment is also one in which no objective data are as yet available to aid in selection. It is the intention of the college to continue studies in these and other fields in the process of attempting to improve the selective admissions plan in the state.

Impressions of an English Public School

By ALAN R. BLACKMER

AS AN EXCHANGE TEACHER from Phillips Academy, Andover, Massachusetts, I taught English and history last year at Christ's Hospital, a famous English boarding school for boys near Horsham, Sussex, England. As did every American exchange teacher whom I met, I found the experience extraordinarily enriching. It gave a deeper understanding and admiration of British character and civilization and, from the professional point of view, both a new perspective on my own school and a renewed sense of the possibilities of education. No one could have been received more warmly, and friendships formed at Christ's Hospital and elsewhere on my visits will remain one of the permanent benefits of the exchange.

On the other hand, the contribution, if any, which we made to our English schools and communities is not so easy to assess. Because of unfamiliar textbooks and emphases—and the relatively short period of time available for complete adjustment—we were often not as effective in the classroom as we like to think we are at home. What compensating values we offered—by way of a fresh approach to the philosophy or techniques of education, or the awakening of sympathetic interest in the United States—must be left to the judgment of those with whom we lived and worked. For such people, appreciative comments on the success of American teachers in England were pleasant to hear, but time must obviously elapse before the long-range values of the teacher-exchange program can be measured. In the meantime, for the individual teacher it is a priceless opportunity.

In a limited, technical sense I gained little. My own subject, English, has less standing at Christ's Hospital than at Andover and similar American schools. Furthermore, my briefing in procedures and what was expected of me was quite casual. From the beginning the school authorities accorded me their complete confidence in anything I saw fit to do in the classroom, listened with amused interest to my tales of what I encountered, and,

as far as I know, never checked, except in the most general way, on my activities. Unlike American teachers, who will talk shop any time or place, my English colleagues more often than not passed off with a light remark or laugh my questions about what they did in the classroom and why. I was undoubtedly taking myself and my job too seriously! Gradually I did pick up some useful information in snatches of conversation and by "reading between the lines," but it came very slowly. Furthermore, I could not plan my work as I had done at Andover because, especially with the older boys, if anything more important came along, the English class did not meet. I once did not meet one of my groups for seventeen days, perhaps a record even for Christ's Hospital.

In any other field, my advent would no doubt have been taken more seriously, but from what I saw I am inclined to think that, both in administration and in teaching, the English approach is that of the amateur, in the best sense, rather than that of the professional. They do not take kindly to rigid organization of academic affairs, to committee meetings, to outlines, syllabuses, and mimeographed instructions. More than do Americans, the English teachers rely on individual power, inspiration, and ingenious spur-of-the-minute adaptation to circumstance. Having experienced both the American and English systems, I came home with the dual impression that American administrative machinery and precision methods are greatly overdone and that the English could profit considerably by more organized sharing of ideas and of techniques.

If I gained little in the limited technical sense that I can use in America, I admired and loved Christ's Hospital and was much impressed by the spirit of its education and by its over-all achievement. It is this education which I should like to describe in part here, for, aside from the obvious personal values inherent in a year's residence and travel in England, it is this picture of Christ's Hospital gained from sharing its problems with responsible and fine people, that made my exchange an important experience. I doubt whether any specific features of this education are transplantable to American soil, but its main aims and principles seem valid anywhere at any time.

Christ's Hospital was founded by Edward VI in 1552 to give poor men's sons meat, drink, clothes, and learning. The American independent school prides itself upon the scholarship opportunities which it offers, but they are pale indeed in comparison with the Christ's Hospital foundation. A boarding school of about 840, to this day it clothes, fully maintains, and educates perhaps one-third of its boys free of charge. Beyond that, no child is admitted if his parents' income is *above* a certain level, and those at the top of the scale pay only \$160 a year in tuition, with fees adjusted downward for most. The students are largely from the lower middle and working classes, with perhaps 25 percent being the sons of professional men having a family tradition of culture and education. Thus, while embodying many of the educational features of the typical English public school, the best known of which I visited last year, Christ's Hospital is socially unique and hence different from the others in general tone and atmosphere.

It takes many of its boys at nine years of age, others at eleven, none later. Some boys of good character but of lower academic aptitude than is tolerated at the best American independent schools are welcomed for much that they bring the school and receive from it. Most leave school at the age of sixteen to enter vocations or business, and consequently have almost their entire education at Christ's Hospital. But a picked group intellectually, known as Grecians—candidates for university scholarships or for service in church or state—remain until eighteen. They are very able and have great prestige. With brains, a serious purpose, and mature values, they give Christ's Hospital a truly remarkable intellectual leadership, quite different from the athletic, personal-popularity leadership in most schools.

A basic aim of American schools is to train character and for citizenship, but I have not seen anywhere in this country such a deliberate and thoroughgoing attempt to create sound and worth-while values and attitudes in a student body. Such a concern is implied in the whole organization of the school; it is more fundamental than the intellectual disciplines. Furthermore, whereas the American tradition, in its training for democracy, places main emphasis on self-reliance, resourcefulness, independ-

ence, and individualism, Christ's Hospital stresses concern for the welfare of the community and responsible leadership among the older boys. And throughout the life of the school is more awareness than is commonly found in American schools of the spiritual, aesthetic, and cultural elements of the good life. What a boy is as a person; what his interests are, what he stands for and respects are regarded as more important than his academic achievement. I was impressed by the degree of success attained by Christ's Hospital in realizing this central objective.

The basis of English public school life is the house system. From the American point of view, it is too self-contained; it restricts contacts and friendships among houses, and, in accomplishing its purposes, appears to put too great an emphasis on conformity. But it does offer an English boy a splendid training in community responsibility. In his house, where he stays throughout his school career, a younger boy learns to serve and to obey and, later, as a monitor, to accept responsibility and to lead. In the routine of day-to-day living, the house is run by the house captain and monitors, and they also do much of the extra-curricular work normally done by American teachers. It is obvious that boys of this age, when supported by tradition and authority, can be much more responsible and able than we sometimes imagine. Without the presence of masters they conduct evening study in the house, read evening prayers, see that the younger boys get to bed in good order, often teach them in various activities, and organize the whole athletic program. Even in the matter of general discipline the concept obtains of a corporate responsibility transcending that of the individual. What a boy achieves is more for the glory of the group than for himself; in general, the English appeared less impressed by a personal triumph than we are. And it was doubly interesting to me that, as accurately as I could judge, Christ's Hospital boys are fully as self-reliant as American youngsters of the same age.

A primary concern for attitudes and values is also obvious in Christ's Hospital's view of the role of religion in education. In addition to the evening house prayers, chapel is compulsory daily and twice on Sunday, and the services have great dignity and beauty. All boys study divinity throughout their school

careers, and most are confirmed in the Church of England while at school. Odd as it may sound to American ears, instead of a diploma upon leaving school, a Christ's Hospital student receives a Bible, handsomely bound and imprinted with the crest of the school; and every boy I knew valued it enormously as an appropriate symbol of his association with the school.

The extracurricular activities are also used deliberately to further this central training in attitudes and values. The school has fewer of these than have most American schools; but these few have solid cultural value, and they blend into the total life more naturally and harmoniously than with us. The music, for instance, is extraordinarily fine. Five members of the staff give full time to it. The chapel singing by the choir and the entire student body is the best I have heard in any school, and the boys take great pride in it. Throughout the year are concerts by combined student and faculty orchestras, choirs, quartets, and an excellent band; open-air madrigal singing occurs in the main quadrangle on fine summer evenings; the fall term ended last year with the singing of the first half of Bach's *Mass in B Minor* by a school choir of over two hundred voices. Many more plays are produced than is customary in American schools, although I saw none as fine as the best of our productions. I was also impressed by the large number of English boys who were seriously following some hobby or special interest such as metal- or wood-working, printing, birds or butterflies, puppets, and architecture.

There seems to be marked difference between the English and the American view of the relation of the school to life outside and beyond the school. The English boarding school, and even the university, is much more cloistered than the American. The American boy gets away from school fairly often. His activities in school are often of an executive and administrative variety; he is always "running things," and his life involves a considerable amount of keen, individualistic competition. Responsible to a community and to its ideals and purposes, the English student remains within that community during term-time. His activities are more closely related to personal enrichment and pleasure, or to the welfare of the group as a whole, than to experience which

will "get him ahead in life." Often, it seemed to me, he was too shut off from, and incurious about, the stir of ideas in the world outside, too conventional in his thinking, too impressed by tradition. Whether or not this judgment is fair, it did seem to me that the English school is, to a greater degree than ours, more of a miniature copy of the world as one might like to have it than a reflection of life as it is—a world deliberately created in the hope that, in such an environment in the most impressionable years of his life, a boy's basic values will be permanently shaped.

As I visited schools in various parts of England, I became increasingly aware that the English have a rather low opinion of American academic standards and a profound ignorance of, and lack of curiosity about, American education in general. But with certain important exceptions which I shall mention later, I would place the academic standards and achievements of Andover and similar American schools above those of Christ's Hospital. For many English boys, education at the secondary level is terminal, since fewer than half of the boys in the English public school go on to the university. Instead of concentrating heavily upon the purely academic, this education must be a balanced, harmonious development of all the faculties and interests which make for happy and successful living. On the other hand, almost all of the boys in the leading American independent secondary schools go on to college; competition for admission has been very keen in recent years; and to achieve their goal, these American boys must win their diplomas and as high a rank as possible in the graduating class. As a consequence, such a boy works harder, spends more hours a day on his books, and has less time for athletics and extracurricular activities than the English boy—at least those I saw at Christ's Hospital—and my judgment on this point is confirmed by that of several American exchange scholars at various English public schools. Furthermore, as part of their basic philosophy of education, the English appear disinclined to waste too much time and effort on developing the brains of the least able boys in school; for such boys character and citizenship are more important. Contrariwise, the American school bends every effort to bring its slow boys

up to the passing mark by virtue of all manner of remedial work, study-habit clinics, restrictions, and special supervision and guidance.

But the English carry the very able and promising boys farther than we do. For example, those who compete for university scholarships take a series of three-hour examinations, comprehensive and difficult beyond anything known to the American secondary school boy. Such examinations are the end result of the system of specialization which, to me, was the outstanding feature of the English public school curriculum. At Christ's Hospital, as early as the age of eleven, the boys are divided roughly into those who may prove to be promising enough to follow a classical curriculum and to go ahead to the university and those who are deemed too slow to profit by such an education. At fourteen they are again divided into those with verbal aptitude and those with scientific aptitude, and they begin to specialize accordingly. At about fifteen or sixteen, after they have passed their school certificate examinations, like our college boards, in general subjects, they start intensive specialization. For two, and sometimes three, years, these able boys spend between half and two-thirds of their time in one field—classics, science, mathematics, modern language, history, occasionally art or music. I never ceased to wonder that, with all this concentration, the average English boy whom I met apparently has a broader general knowledge and culture than his American counterpart, and my judgment here is supported by that of several American exchange students in England. However this may be, I found the English academic specialization exaggerated. It would seem that the humanities specialist ought to have a sound, if elementary, knowledge of the laws of nature which govern his existence and a grounding in the basic tenets of scientific method and that, in this age of technocracy when the individual is losing significance and moral and human values are becoming blurred and lost, the scientist should have understanding of the humanities. But, the more I watched this system and its products, the more values I saw in it, perhaps in modified form, for the able boy. The work for which a student has aptitude and interest is usually the most rewarding and can

certainly discipline the mind if quality performance is demanded in it. Also, the English specialist is constantly required to relate his field to modern life—political, social, and cultural. Furthermore, concentration upon a field gives the able English boy an insight into scholarship and a glimpse of the meaning and satisfactions of learning achieved by few American boys of sixteen to eighteen years of age. In comparison with the scope and maturity of the projects undertaken by the top group at Christ's Hospital, much of the work of American secondary school seniors is immature and elementary.

The English system of specialization has a bearing on student exchange scholarships which is imperfectly understood on both sides of the Atlantic. Inevitably, an American boy of eighteen, having followed a general program of studies, with only slight specialization, is badly equipped to compete successfully with able English boys of his own age, except, perhaps, in history. In this subject he may start a period afresh with his fellows, and lack of background, while a handicap, is less costly than in mathematics, science, or language. This unrecognized difference between the English and American program of studies persuades the British, who do not bother to look further into the matter, that American boys, however bright, are scholastically two years behind the British.

In these days of increasing pressures and tensions everywhere, I was interested to see that the life of a Christ's Hospital boy is much more leisurely and relaxed than that of the American secondary school boy with whom I am familiar. He has less freedom than the American boy, but, at the same time, his life is better balanced, and he has ample time for his various jobs. This is a direct reflection of the difference in tempo between American and British life. There are other explanations to be found in the differences between the English and American educational systems. As previously stated, the English school is not under obligation to get all its boys into a first-rate college. Also, not only is the English school-year several weeks longer than the American school-year, but also the English secondary school normally can expect a better scholastic foundation on the part of entering students than can American private secondary schools.

Even more significant, I think, is a conception radically different from the American of the place and utility of grades and examinations. The English boy must face outside examinations at least twice in his school career, but his internal school examinations, at least at Christ's Hospital, are fewer than is customary in the American system and taken much more "in stride." The boys work faithfully enough from day to day without worry and produce, when called upon, without cram sessions. The school has no passing grade as such; indeed, when I first mentioned a passing grade, I was not understood. Grading periods are less frequent than with us, and the whole system of reporting is more casual and impressionistic, based as it is on brief descriptive notes on a boy's progress and effort rather than on numerical grades, although rank in class is sometimes used. Of more importance than specific results achieved, measured in terms of 60's or 80's or units of credit, is a student's attitude towards learning and the keenness and continuity of his effort. The average English boy, as I saw him, is not pushed as hard as the average American boy, at least at Andover, on the ground that worth-while experience of any kind takes time to assimilate, and to hurry and force it is self-defeating, especially for the slow boy.

The institution of the diploma is unknown in English public schools and, in my opinion, they are well off without it, as long as solid and comprehensive examinations are given by outside authorities. Without the pressure of a diploma requirement to force a slow boy beyond his capacity—or out of school altogether—an English school can educate boys of fine character and a considerable range of intelligence, segregated in sections according to their aptitude and achievement, and helped according to their needs. Expulsion is an exceedingly serious matter in an English school and very rare.

Physically, the life of the Christ's Hospital boy is severe and tough beyond anything known in most American schools. His food is monotonous and poor. Lacking a private study or bedroom, he studies in company with fifty other boys and sleeps on a hard bed in a room where twenty-five others sleep. He has to keep his clothes neat, his shoes polished, his bed made; he takes

his turn with all other boys in setting tables for meals, waiting, cleaning up, and other house duties. In many ways, from the American point of view, he is highly restricted. He must go to bed early; he must study at his assigned seat in his house and not visit anybody during study hours; he has almost no spending money; he cannot smoke anywhere at any time; he rarely sees girls; he is allowed no week ends at all. Seeing the restrictions and austerities of the English public school system (below the sixth form, that is, the senior year), American teachers visiting Christ's Hospital often said to me, "Imagine American boys standing for that!" In such respects, English educators are much less concerned than we are with what boys will "stand," or even with student opinion in general.

On the other hand, in other ways a boy's life at Christ's Hospital is more enjoyable than many an American boy finds his school experience to be. After the age of fourteen a Christ's Hospital student concentrates more and more on the courses he likes and in which he can do well. If, while not strong in his studies, he enjoys music, art, shopwork, or dramatics, he is encouraged and enabled to find satisfactions in these things. He gets out into the countryside often, by himself or on all-day outings with his whole house. Extra half-holidays are frequent. In these respects his life is rewarding and, with few academic crises, is not lived under tension. Most important of all, he has a basic security; as long as he tries, is a good citizen, and is profiting from his experience, he is assured of his place in the school. I was impressed by the excellent morale of the student body; the boys whom I knew well were unusually appreciative and loyal.

In summary, my year at Christ's Hospital put American secondary education as I have known it in a new perspective. Some of our strengths stood out more clearly than before, and, likewise, some of our weaknesses. I could wish that the English were more familiar with the inherent strength and integrity of the best which we offer, and I hope that many more Americans will be able to experience at firsthand what I admired most at Christ's Hospital: the harmonious blend of the various qualities needed for decent, humane living.

Rethinking Principles in a Changing World

By J. HILLIS MILLER

THE WINTER EDITION of *The American Scholar*, chief publication of Phi Beta Kappa, contains an editorial entitled "The Crisis and the Scholar" which is both discouraging and reassuring. In this editorial, written by R. L. Duffus, a member of the editorial board, a scholar is defined, not as "somebody who knows," but as "somebody who is willing to learn."¹ Our world is defined, not as the One World of the late Wendell Willkie, but as an age and a world struggling to be born. The crisis we face is defined, not as a conflict between that part of the world dominated by Russia and that part not so dominated, but rather as a conflict "between those whose minds are closed because they are too sure, and those whose minds are confused because they are not really sure of anything."

The human race is pictured as "the sepulchre of valiant men" as in old Athenian times—men who are willing to sacrifice and to die, but who are not quite certain why. We do not lack physical courage, and for this editorial writer at least, "our hearts are right," but we are wandering in the wilderness of our minds. Confusion ranks high among the vices of the age. We go on haltingly wavering among decisions. We have been doers rather than learners. We have struck out blindly, and our paths have been neither the paths of peace nor those of wisdom.

In his "Word to the Deaf" Guglielmo Ferrero characterized this confusion more clearly than almost any other writer when he said: "There have been epochs more uncouth, poorer, and more ignorant than our own, but they knew what they wanted. What do we want? That is the essential question. Every man and every epoch should keep this question constantly before them, just as a lamp is kept burning day and night in dark places."

If Duffus has a text, it is his definition of a scholar—"the man

¹ *The American Scholar*, XVII (Winter 1947-48), 9-10.

who wants to do right and is willing to study how this may be done." His commentary contains words of mighty import: "The world has changed, and is changing, with terrible speed. We have our principles. They are sound, as they were in the days of old. Invention cannot of itself diminish the dignity and sanctity of the individual life. But we must submit our methods to a novel scrutiny. We must seek old objectives in new ways."

And finally, Duffus has pointed the moral of his message in a ringing challenge—"that out of the confusion we may know how to rededicate ourselves to the great principles of freedom."

It is against this background that the writer seeks to make his contribution through a discussion of the subject, "Rethinking Principles in a Changing World." In such a discussion we assume a changing world. How much the world has changed is obvious to everyone who has the slightest chance of doing anything to improve it. There are too many people in the world who might have done something to direct its destiny but who have spent their time either trying to bring about change or to prevent change. The problem all the time has been how to direct inevitable change and how to make it the servant of man and not his master.

In any analysis of the assumptions in favor of social progress and the vulnerabilities of the age in which we live change must be put down, along with science and man's organizational ability to get things done, as a neutral factor. We must begin with the assumption that the hands of the clock of time will not be stayed or turned back. What change does to us is subject to our own determination.

We part company with Duffus and his challenging editorial in our belief that his prescription for bringing the new world and the new age into being is too narrowly conceived. He states that we have our principles, that they are as sound as they were in the days of old, and that it is merely a question of knowing how to rededicate ourselves to them and of defending and promulgating them in some way other than by valiant action on the field of battle. He believes, as does the writer, that "the partnership of the American idealist and the American practical man has not been made manifest."

The inconsistency in the editorial lies in Duffus's contention that a suitable description of the American mind is that it is "not sure of anything" and his equally strong contention that we have our principles, that we know what they are, and that we know they are sound. In the light of this apparent inconsistency, Duffus adds a further inconsistency to his argument by contending that there is a difference between the American idealist and the American practical man. We can accept the latter contention but not the first. The reason we cannot accept the first contention, namely, that we are sure of our principles, is that we agree with the earlier contention of Duffus that we are not "certain about anything."

Our task, then, in defending "freedom as we conceive it" and "democracy as we know it" is twofold. We must rethink our principles in the light of a changing world, and we must search out new ways of defending them short of mortal combat. In other words, we must not only seek old objectives in new ways, but we must also be sure we know what the objectives really are. When this is done, the partnership between the American idealist and the American practical man will be made manifest. In very fact, when this is done, there will be no distinction between the American idealist and the American practical man—they will be one and the same. In reality a new American principle or ideal will be a known method of achieving clearly defined objectives short of conflict, strife, and bloodshed.

It is fair to challenge anyone who contends that we need to rethink our fundamental principles. You may ask, Are not principles eternal? Is it not true, as Duffus asserts, that "invention cannot of itself diminish the dignity and sanctity of the individual life?" To these queries we can give a positive affirmation. Having given such affirmation, however, we still believe that principles must be constantly reconsidered.

In the first place, there are those who are not so sanguine about principles and ideals. The most charitable thing one can say about such persons is that they believe principles change in a changing world. "The whole history of civilization," wrote Walter Bagehot, noted British economist of the late nineteenth

century, "is strewn with creeds and institutions which were invaluable at first, and deadly afterwards." John Herman Randall, noted philosopher, said in 1929: "Men whose minds have become habituated to thinking in scientific terms find other intellectual attitudes superfluous and irrelevant."² In his *Preface to Morals*, Walter Lippmann referred to Wilenski, an astute and well-informed critic, who estimated that in Paris during the past hundred years a new movement in painting has been inaugurated every ten years. That would conform fairly accurately, reflected Lippmann, to the birth and death of new philosophies in the advanced and most emancipated circles.

There are those who believe that the breakup of Greek religion was directly due to the fact that the old mythology provided images too imperfect to satisfy the heart's longing to advance. In *The Religious Quests of the Graeco-Roman World*, S. Angus said: "At the cost of millennia of experimentation it was brought home to man that God is not to be worshipped with bulls but with a devout and righteous will. And it will require millennia yet adequately to realize that 'neither in the mountain nor in Jerusalem shall ye worship the Father'; or that one mode or tradition of cult should be placed above another."³

In the second place, there are those who believe that the reality of life lies in the quest for ideals and principles and not in finding them. That is the philosophy of Herman Melville in *Moby Dick*. It is found in *The Educational Value of Doubt*, by Edwin Dean Martin; in *The Philosophy of As If*, by Sweinger; and in *The Everlasting Struggle*, by Johan Bojer. It is reflected in the philosophy of Robert Louis Stevenson who said: "We are not intended to succeed. Our business is to continue to fail in good spirits."⁴ It is reflected in the writings of Lessing who said: "If I had to choose between the search for truths and truth itself I would choose the search."⁵ It is reflected in the philosophy of Josiah Royce who wrote in *The World and the Indi-*

² *The Literary Digest*, June 15, 1929, p. 26.

³ New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1929, p. 165.

⁴ Quoted in William James, *Varieties of Religious Experience* (New York: Modern Library).

⁵ G. E. Lessing, *Theological Writings*.

vidual: "We seek. That is a fact. We seek a city still out of sight. In contrast with this goal, we live. But if this be so, then we already possess something of Being even in our finite seeking. For in the readiness to seek is already something of an attainment."⁶

In the third place, most of our principles and ideals have been inherited. "Ideals," said Felix Adler, "are pang born," but if we never suffer the pangs ourselves we take our ideals less seriously than if we had. It was Henry Pitt Van Dusen, I believe, who said that it takes only four generations to discard a basic religious concept or system of thought. The first generation creates it, the second generation accepts it by inheritance, the third generation questions it because it is inherited, and the fourth generation discards it for something new. Lewis Mumford called the religion inherited by the twentieth century "the unearned increment of religion."⁷

In the fourth place, there is need for our rethinking our principles and ideals because they are such young and tender plants. The study of anthropology demonstrates that we have barely emerged from premoral darkness, that the dawn of conscience is just behind us, and that we still stand in the sunrise of the age of character. As Emerson says in his *Essay on Politics*: "We think our civilization near its meridian, but we are only at the cock-crowing and the morning star. In our barbarous society the influence of character is in its infancy." In the *Dawn of Conscience*, by James H. Breasted, we find this significant statement: "The most fundamentally important thing in the developing life of man has been the rise of ideals of conduct and the emergence of character, a transformation of human life which can be historically demonstrated to have begun but yesterday."⁸ Specifically, between fifty-five and forty-five hundred years ago, thinking men were thrown back from the consideration of outward splendor to the contemplation of inner values, and men

⁶ New York: Macmillan Co., 1927, p. 181.

⁷ Lewis Mumford, *Faith for Living* (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1940), p. 18.

⁸ New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1933, p. x.

realized for the first time that immortality was a thing achieved in a man's own soul.

Finally, we must constantly rethink our fundamental principles and our ideals because of the persistent conflict between these high concepts and the practical concerns of life. A. K. Rogers, the philosopher, put his finger on this difficulty in 1934 when he wrote his book on *Ethics and Moral Tolerance*. "No ideal," he said, "is in a position to do its duty toward the facts so long as it claims to have an adequate embodiment in some general formula presumed to be sufficiently attested by its self-evident emotional or rational appeal. Moral terms and standards cannot be enforced by exhortation. They must be related to ideas and to a course that expedience prompts."⁹

Harry Emerson Fosdick helps us with regard to this aspect of our subject in his sermon on "Beautiful Ideals and Brutal Facts." This great preacher believes that when we think of something grim and ugly we are too prone to call it a fact, and whenever we think of something fine and beautiful we call it an ideal. "So," he says, "if we identify the low and grim with solid fact and the high and lovely with ethereal ideal, we surrender the case, in advance of argument, to a materialistic philosophy."¹⁰ Fosdick contends that "we do not face solid, brutal facts versus insubstantial, beautiful ideals; we face two kinds of solid facts, both tremendously real . . ." Fosdick's faith in God, to take an example, is a militant business, and to make it work in a world such as ours he feels that he must make it work in the presence of all the other practical concerns that life has to offer.

How, then, can we bring about that partnership between the American idealist and the American practical man which is so essential if we are to promulgate our principles and ideals in a world of conflict? We have tried to say that we cannot consider ways and means of achieving ideal objectives until we have rethought the full significance of fundamental principles and for the following reasons: (1) there are those who are not sanguine about the unchangeableness of principles in a changing world;

⁹ New York: Macmillan Co., 1934, p. 78.

¹⁰ Harry Emerson Fosdick, *The Hope of the World* (New York: Harper & Bros.), pp. 214 ff.

(2) there are those who believe that the reality of life lies in the quest of ideals and not in finding them; (3) our principles and ideals have been inherited, and we must rethink them to make them our own; (4) our principles and ideals have just emerged from premoral darkness; and (5) we must constantly rethink our principles in order to relate them properly to the practical concerns of life. From here we can go on to find ways and means to rededicate ourselves to the great principles of freedom and democracy.

These two points have been made much better than I can make them by Andrew S. Draper in an address in 1905 at the installation of Edmund J. James as president of the University of Illinois:

Ideals must be upheld and made attractive; they must be sane ideals which appeal to real men—and not only to old men, but to young men. There must be no mistaking of dyspepsia for principle, no assumption that character grows only when powers fail. Rather, there must be a rational philosophy of life by which men may live as well as die.

Nor is this all. There must be a forehandedness. Someone must be charged with the responsibility of peering into the future and leading forward. New and yet more difficult roads must be broken out. Someone in a position to do it must be active in initiating things. He must see what will go—and, quite as clearly, what will not go. Subtle but fallacious logic—and a vast deal of it—must be resisted, greed combated, conceits punctured, resources augmented, influences enlarged, forces marshaled for practical undertakings, and the whole enterprise made to give a steadily increasing service to the industrial, professional, political, and moral interests of a whole people.¹¹

Well, there it is! New and yet more difficult roads must be broken out. What greater challenge could be held out to the American people, and particularly to those coming from our colleges and universities? If Americans fail in this crucial hour, the world may never have another chance. Whether or not we face it, our situation today is as serious as that!

¹¹ Quoted in "Ferment in Education," record of the installation of George D. Stoddard as president of the University of Illinois, May 16, 1947, p. 5.

A Working View of UNESCO¹

By HELEN C. WHITE

THE VERY NAME of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization suggests something of the difficulties involved in its foundation. The crisp and slightly flippant-sounding alphabetical abbreviation, UNESCO, is more manageable for report-writing, but it does little to mask the magnitude and complexity of the basic undertaking. That is perhaps best summed up in a sentence of Prime Minister Attlee's now in the preamble to the constitution of UNESCO, "Since wars begin in the minds of men it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed." In other words, the purpose of this particular specialized agency of the United Nations is to establish, through the cooperation of the intellectual forces of mankind, that common basis of understanding essential for the achievement of any firm and lasting peace among the nations of the world.

This approach to the major problem of our day is one to appeal especially to what one may call the intellectual-at-large, to people like ourselves. And it is one to appeal to the idealist, "the one good idea left in the world," as one woman puts it. Some of these idealists go so far as to suggest that UNESCO will presently find a way over, if not around, all those problems which so far have baffled the Security Council and the General Assembly of the United Nations together.

At the other extreme are those who maintain that the one place in which wars are not made is the *minds* of men, a position which, in the present stage of picking up the pieces after the second world war within one lifetime, it is not very easy to rebut. And even harder to dispose of is the challenge of those who ask, "In the minds of what men?" From such questions, not readily answered anyway, it is easy to go on to very cynical conclusions about the relevance of all this discussion of cooperation in such imponderables as art and philosophy to issues which seem usually

¹ An address before the Madison (Wisconsin) Literary Club, December 13, 1948.

to be resolved by who gets there first with the most. And it is still easier to rub in the discouragement of the intellectual at bay in a practical world with the taunt, "And what do you expect to have to say about it anyway, little man?" or, still more witheringly, "little woman?"

Building the foundations of peace in the minds of men through intellectual cooperation is, like all the intellectual and spiritual enterprises which civilization has ever undertaken, a difficult concept to translate into specific and practical projects with the prospect of demonstrable results. It is not entirely surprising, therefore, that such a critic as the author of a recent unhappy article in a national magazine has been ready to discount UNESCO as a characteristically impractical and expensive manifestation of that woolgathering utopianizing that the hardheaded may expect from the intellectual. In the cloud of dreams enveloping UNESCO this author also discerns a tinge of that pinkness which many Americans seem to think an inevitable hazard of any but the most elementary cultural activities, to say nothing of a touch of that exotic grafting to be suspected in any international enterprise for which the American taxpayer pays a considerable share of the bill.

Such suspicions are perhaps inevitable, but they are hardly justified by the record. UNESCO does, of course, have its ideal aspect. It embodies a dream as old as that which inspired the founding of the first of the universities, Plato's Academy in ancient Athens—the dream of a cooperative endeavor of all the scholars and wise men of civilization to bring the best light that the human reason has discovered to bear upon the daily problems of men's living together. That dream still haunts every Quonset-jammed campus of our great American universities today, not least of all our own Wisconsin. After the First World War it moved the founders of the League of Nations to set up a committee for intellectual cooperation that became presently the Institute for Intellectual Cooperation in Paris, which, on a very modest budget but with a distinguished personnel and much prestige on what has been called the "Einstein level," continued until its library and records were taken over only the other day

by UNESCO. And when in 1945 the San Francisco Conference assembled to reassert human solidarity and to make another attempt to set up an organization and machinery to keep the peace it was then confidently expected would be soon established, the old dream appeared again with fresh vitality. For the men of San Francisco, made wise by the failures of Geneva, or perhaps one should say, the world's failures at Geneva, understood that the forms of international organization would never come to life unless the spirit of understanding and cooperation vitalized them.

But from the very beginning of the planning for UNESCO, this old dream of international cooperation in the things of the mind was brought down to earth by the grim necessities of the war period. For when during the winter of 1943 the ministers of education of the governments-in-exile in London began to meet regularly to wrestle with the problems of postwar reconstruction, it became quite clear that the war devastation was already so catastrophically extensive that only an international effort would begin to meet the need. These men, with their overwhelming preoccupation with the emergency created by the war, were in on the planning for UNESCO from the beginning, and when the first meeting to launch the new cultural organization was held in London in the fall of 1945, their presence and their thinking reminded the men who might have been tempted to concentrate on long-term planning, of the desperate need of the moment and of the climate of value in which their efforts would be assessed. I remember how vividly they made their presence and their cause felt.

And there was still a third group who had a good deal to do with the planning of UNESCO, though I doubt if at the beginning the first two groups had realized how important they were later to become. I know I first became aware of this group at the fifth meeting of the Preparatory Commission for UNESCO, in London in July of 1946. A representative of one of the most devastated of the occupied countries had flown to London some pictures of child life as it was being lived at that very moment in the rubble-piled streets of his destroyed capital. There was one picture in particular which I shall never forget—

a class in an elementary school, a huddle of ragged, starved-looking little creatures crouched in a heap of rubble, with no protection but a broken wall behind them. Most of us had to fight to keep back the tears, but when that picture reached a representative of one of the Latin American countries, a man famous for his humanitarian efforts in his own country, he only shrugged his shoulders and said, "It looks like a school in my country any day of the year." And it came sharply home to us that there were in that same room the representatives of three worlds—the world that for all of the grief of war's loss still kept its modern cultural facilities physically intact, and the world that had once possessed the tools and the equipment of modern civilization and had seen them swept away, and now this third world which had never had access to what we had taken for granted. I suspected that we were going to hear more of this third world, and we have, with ever-mounting frequency and insistence.

That is the context in which UNESCO was launched in the fall of 1945. The constitution provided for an annual conference of delegations representing the member-nations which should be the supreme policy-making body of the organization, an Executive Board which should be responsible for questions of policy in between those meetings, and a Secretariat, headed by a Director General responsible for the practical working-out of the program of UNESCO. It was decided that the headquarters of the organization should be in Paris, though the annual conference might be held elsewhere, and that the two official languages should be French and English. A Preparatory Commission made up of representatives appointed by the member-states was set up to make plans for the new organization, including staff, budget, and program, and an Executive Secretary appointed to assemble a temporary staff to further the plans of the Preparatory Commission. That was a very large assignment to carry out between November of 1945 and July of 1946 when the fifth and last meeting of the Preparatory Commission was held.

By now you have a fair notion of the magnitude of the problem of making a program that would serve the varying types of

situations that I have suggested. It would have to be flexible, to begin with; it would have to meet the very exacting standard of not only contributing to human welfare, but also of promoting the achievement of international understanding and, ultimately, of peace through cooperation of the workers of many nations in these fields of education, science, and culture. And it would have to provide at one and the same time for a future of limitless growth and for solid, demonstrable practical results that would justify the UNESCO budget in a world that was half-starving. Moreover, all this had to be contrived in a few months. When one remembers how few universities, for example, have sprung full-bloom into being all at once, it is, I think, only fair to emphasize that the basic planning of the program for UNESCO was completed in less than a year, and that that program has already undergone a number of revisions within the bare two years of its operation.

It is evidence both of the world-wide interest in UNESCO and the fertility of the so-called academic mind that from the beginning the great problem of the program-makers of UNESCO has been an embarrassment of riches; indeed, the great worry at first was that, as one wag put it, the program of UNESCO might become a parade of hobby horses. Everybody, it seemed, had both his own favorite projects and his *bête noire*.

But there was not only the question of the wisdom or folly of the specific project; there was, also, the larger question of the organization of the over-all program in specific fields, and that involved, first of all, the definition and delimitation of those fields. That, I need hardly remind you, is not so simple as it sounds. The tremendous development of modern technology has been made possible fundamentally by a very high degree of specialization. But these specialties themselves have been very far from stable. As we all know, there has been a constant process of segmentation and reorganization going on. And more and more men have discovered that when one undertakes any considerable project of a practical nature, one needs the help of a number of specialties. This is a general predicament, by no means confined to UNESCO.

The program as it stands now is organized in working divisions

matched by corresponding sections of the Secretariat. At first they look fairly obvious, but already there is a considerable history of discussion and trial and reorganization behind a number of these categories. The first, Reconstruction, has remained unchanged from the beginning, although there was a good deal of discussion as to whether UNESCO should try to engage in direct reconstruction activity or should confine its efforts to surveying needs, stimulating and organizing the contributions of governments and voluntary organizations to meet those needs, and advising on the distribution of gifts and contributions. The record, I think, justifies the majority decision, for in the first year alone, if UNESCO had devoted its entire budget to reconstruction, there would have been less than seven million dollars to spend, whereas actually about forty million dollars was raised for reconstruction in that year, and the record was bettered in 1948.

The second division, that of Communications, now brings together a number of fields that have at varying times been in other complexes—exchange of persons, mass communications, libraries, books and publications, copyright.

As for the field of education, so plainly recognized in the name UNESCO, it was not until the Mexico City conference in November of 1947 that it was decided to bring all the activities into a section on Education under one administrative head, and not until April of this year that the new Assistant Director General, Mr. C. E. Beeby of New Zealand, took over. Education now includes such matters, among others, as fundamental education, adult education, work with universities, educational seminars, the teaching of international understanding in the schools, the improvement of textbooks and teaching materials (for furthering international understanding), educational aids such as films and filmstrips, and the problems of war-handicapped children. You can see that it is a program to keep even such a phenomenally resourceful and energetic man as Mr. Beeby fully engaged for some time. Moreover, the entire program in this field is handicapped by a world-wide shortage of experts in the field of fundamental education and by the fact—very strik-

ingly dramatized in the difficulties which the Haiti project of this year ran into—that a pilot project in fundamental education soon becomes a project in food and agriculture, conservation and development of resources, transportation, health, and almost everything else that is holding back a retarded section of the earth.

The Cultural Interchange division is another one that has given us all a good many headaches in the way of classification. There was one time when it consisted of arts and letters, philosophy, and the humanities, and Dr. McKeon and I spelled each other in attending the working parties for the two fields at Mexico City.

But there is no want of enthusiasm for the already existent Theatre Institute, and the planned-for Music Institute, the International Literary Pool, the encouragement of high quality reproductions in visual arts and music, the reproduction of unique objects of art (a matter, alas, of real practical urgency in a world where not even the North Pole seems any longer a safe retreat from bombs), the translations of great books, and a series of programs in the philosophic and humanistic studies, ranging from plans for museums cooperation to an International African Institute for research on the native cultures of that continent, still dark to too many of us in other parts of the world.

In the division of Human and Social Relations the project that has aroused the greatest interest but has also proved the most difficult to define and plan for is the study of tensions affecting international understanding. And much the same may be said of the philosophical analysis of current ideological conflicts. Of longer-term importance, one would like to hope, are the studies of the aspects of culture and of problems in international collaboration, the methods of political science, the popularization of science, and the social implications of science.

For a number of reasons it has been much easier to draw up a program in the field of the Natural Sciences. For the most part they deal with objective elements that are more readily amenable to precise definition and discrimination than, say, the problem of social tensions, and it is easier to formulate specific projects that will yield measurable results in this field than in

the field of Cultural Interchange, for instance. Then, too, the natural sciences to a large extent deal with the physical environment and conditions of man's life on a common earth, and the forces that govern that environment are not by any means sensitive to national boundaries. These are advantages that other fields would find it hard to duplicate, but there is one in which the example of the natural scientists can and should be imitated; and that as soon as possible. For fifty years at least international cooperation has been a fact in the natural sciences. It has been possible, therefore, for the natural scientists to present UNESCO with projects and with programs in which not only are the natural sciences enabled to help UNESCO, but UNESCO to help the natural sciences.

Those representatives of other fields who sometimes grumble about the amount of time and money that has gone into the Natural Sciences section of the program of UNESCO would be better advised to emulate the example of the scientists and push ahead with the more effective international organization of their fields.

This does not mean that the scientists have not had their problems like all of us. There was, for instance, the project for a Bird Refuge on the Island of Helgoland. While I am not by any means a wild-life enthusiast (I simply do not know enough about the subject), still a bird refuge sounded to me like a relatively harmless prospect for a spot, which as everybody knows, has been used for much less-innocent purposes. But that was a favorite example of a project jeered at by people who were anxious to keep every impractical project but their own out of UNESCO. Later the Hylean Amazon project drew some of the same fire. But at Mexico City the proponents of that project were able to convince some of the hardest-headed scientists in America that all UNESCO would be expected to do would be to spark a cooperative effort in research on the problems of life in the jungle that would be substantially supported by the countries immediately concerned, and the project stands. Still later, in discussing the protection of wild life on the Galapagos Islands, the rest of us woke up to the fact that our Latin American col-

leagues expected action in an area which they did not think we had taken as seriously as we should, and it was so voted.

But the item in the Natural Sciences program which is specifically labelled as of the highest priority is the Field Science Cooperation Offices in the Middle East, East Asia, Latin America, and South Asia—areas of the world where the facilities of modern science are obviously not as readily available as they are in, say, our part of the world. Work on the popularization of science, on cooperation with nongovernmental organizations—specifically the great international voluntary organizations of scientists—holds a high place on the UNESCO program, too. But the most important undertaking in this field is unquestionably the World Centre of Scientific Liaison at Paris for such activities as the exchange of scientific information, the exchange of scientists, collaboration with the United Nations and the specialized agencies in the field of the natural sciences, the maintenance of a scientific apparatus information section, the promotion of the standardization of scientific terminology, and so on.

You will, I think, agree that this is a very impressive program, but you will ask how much of this is on paper, and how much of it is already under way. Is UNESCO really getting anything done? That question is best answered by suggesting very briefly some of the things UNESCO has already done. The setting-up of this program, the assembling of a staff of experts quite literally from the four quarters of the earth, and the organization of the working sections of the Secretariat constitute an achievement of a very impressive order for about two years and a half of work, and that in a peculiarly disturbed period of the world's history.

As for the operation of the program itself I shall list only a few things. In the field of educational reconstruction, a *Book of Needs*, dealing mainly with Europe, was compiled in the first year of UNESCO, and a second book is under way. Field surveys of educational, scientific and cultural needs have been completed for Burma, the Philippines, Malaya, Sarawak, North Borneo, and India, and a similar survey for China is under way. The United States Commission for Educational Reconstruction

alone reported contributions of nearly forty millions for 1947, and the figure for 1948 is expected to exceed that record by over three million dollars. That is the outstanding record, of course, but a number of other countries, notably our neighbor, Canada, have also made generous contributions. And UNESCO, in addition to aiding in the distribution of such funds, has organized and is operating an effective information center for the exchange of books, still one of the most essential needs of the world in every field.

In the division of Exchange and Communication, the fellowship program is one of special interest to all university people. The award of fellowships—some sixty in direct grant, and about the same number from other agencies—has proceeded more slowly than expected, largely, I suspect, because of the delays of governmental correspondence, but, from the point of view of people familiar with the international fellowship situation, the most promising feature of UNESCO's work in this field is the development of procedures for, and the actual completion of, a world-wide survey of international fellowship opportunities.² That should lead to the establishment at UNESCO headquarters of a world-wide center of information about exchange of persons which the world very badly needs at the present time.

The mass communications section of the program has produced a series of surveys of technical needs for that field—radio, movies, press—of great value. UNESCO cooperated in the United Nations Conference on Freedom of Information and Freedom of the Press of last March. A so-called International Ideas Bureau has been working since June on a production unit for programs for the field of mass communications. A dispatch from Beirut, where the Third Annual Conference of UNESCO met recently, reported that UNESCO will be ready to distribute this program for radio early next year. This is one of the most important of UNESCO undertakings in any field.

As for books and publications, the volume of essays on the philosophical principles of human rights is in manuscript, and negotiations are under way for its publication. The museograph-

² *Study Abroad* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1949).

ical journal *Museum*, planned to help museums over the world to develop a program of services in support of the general aims of UNESCO, is already appearing in French and English. A comparative and critical study of copyright problems and of the way in which they are handled in various countries is well advanced. But the difficulty, not to say delicacy, of this problem may be judged from the differences of opinion in our own governmental offices on this matter.

In the field of education perhaps the most impressive achievement to date is the publication of a book *Fundamental Education: Common Ground for All People*,³ in 1947. It endeavors to put the experience of the educationally more advanced nations at the service of those which as yet have not managed to establish a basic educational system, which constitute, as I have already suggested, a very considerable proportion of the world's population. Radio broadcasts on this subject have been given in the Middle East and in other areas where such help is especially needed, and regional conferences have been held in China and in Mexico City. What will eventually be a real clearinghouse of information and expert guidance in this field is in process of being set up at Paris. A consultant has been working in China making a survey of work already done or under way there, some of it as a result of the Nanking Regional Conference held jointly by the Chinese government and UNESCO in September of 1947, and acting as a consultant and a coordinator of efforts already in progress there under a variety of auspices. The plan which UNESCO outlined for a pilot project has been followed pretty closely in the programs which the Nyasaland government launched in East Africa early in 1948, and UNESCO has sent an expert consultant there to aid with its carrying-out. And the UNESCO Secretariat has done a great deal of preliminary work for the pilot project in Haiti, not the least important of it the negotiations with other specialized agencies of the United Nations, for the preliminary surveys in the Marbial Valley site chosen by the Haitian government for that project have made clear that a concerted attack upon a number of even more basic

³ New York: Macmillan Co.

physical problems is necessary before much can be done in an educational way.

Nothing in the UNESCO program has evoked greater enthusiasm and wider interest than the UNESCO seminars. A pilot one on adolescence and international education was held at Sèvres in 1947, and three seminars in the summer of 1948, on the education and training of teachers, at Ashridge in Hertfordshire, England; on childhood education, in Prague, Czechoslovakia; and on teaching about the United Nations and its specialized agencies, at Adelphi College, Garden City, Long Island. Under the heading of teaching of international education in schools the Director General reports a wide range of activities, surveys, competitions, conferences, program-making. The improvement of textbooks and teaching materials in this field, one of the most widely appealing undertakings in the whole program, has been delayed by the all-too-common difficulty of securing the right staff. But a statement of basic principles and criteria, a very difficult business, has been drawn up, and a model plan for the analysis of textbooks and teaching materials completed.

As for progress in the Cultural Interchange section, in spite of the difficulty of getting just the right people in the right places in a field—as we have seen, not always easy to organize concretely—very considerable progress has been made, too, not the least, the securing of Mr. Lin Yutang to head that section of the Secretariat. The International Theatre Institute is a fact. The International Literary Pool is bringing widely separated cultural regions of the world, like the Orient and Europe, into contact with each other. In the field of the arts, catalogs of high-quality reproductions of works of art in three important fields of painting are approaching completion, and work is also under way for a catalog of recorded music. The project for the translations of great books has reached the stage of collecting official lists from member-states and a conference of writers, critics, translators, and editors from a wide distribution of countries in different parts of the world. And UNESCO is giving advice to museums on exhibitions available for international distribution and on possible exhibitions for which there might be a demand.

On the very difficult tensions project in the division of Human and Social Relations, probably the most important work that has been done there is in the definition and analysis of the field, a very considerable job that might, from what I have heard experts engaged on it say, be properly called pioneer work in methodology and technique. By arrangement with the International Studies Conference, experts in France, Norway, Poland, and Switzerland are preparing pilot monographs for a Way of Life series, to deal concretely with issues raised in this field. A number of research organizations in various parts of the world are making surveys of adult populations to elucidate their concepts of both their own country and of other countries. Various experts who have experimented with techniques of changing attitudes are preparing memorandums embodying their suggestions, and these will be circulated among chosen groups in a number of countries for study, with an eye to specific proposals for action. These are but samples of a considerable assortment of projects designed to enlist the services of a wide variety of appropriate agencies and organizations and institutions working in the member-states.

As for the field of the natural sciences, progress to date in that vital area may be summed up in a word—a world-wide clearing-house of scientific information is already a fact in the Natural Sciences division of the Secretariat in Paris. And Field Science Cooperation Offices are already proving centers of activity and influence for bringing modern science to quarters of the globe where its transforming influence is all too long overdue. According to Dr. Huxley's estimate, a very substantial program of grants-in-aid will help forward about a hundred and twenty different projects in international scientific work, bring about four hundred and fifty scientists to fifty international scientific conferences, aid the publication of some forty reports, bulletins, journals, and the like, and in various ways further the activities of some thirty scientific services, laboratories, and stockrooms. That is, I am sure we will all agree, a very impressive record for less than two years of work.

But there is one more question that is often asked, "How can

UNESCO perform its function of building peace in the minds of men through international understanding in a world for all practical purposes divided as our world is today?" That question was discussed very frankly and fully at the recent meeting of the United States National Commission for UNESCO in Boston last September. Certain points brought out in that discussion are worth keeping in mind whenever we are tempted to lose courage and ask what is the use. First of all, the latchstring is out for Russia; it always has been. It is her decision alone that keeps her out. If Russia and her friends persist in staying outside UNESCO, it makes the efforts of the world to which free intercourse is possible to achieve mutual understanding all the more imperative, and that is not to be understood in any bloc sense.

Moreover, it was the consensus of opinion among the National Commission members in Boston (and this after the most candid and realistic assessment of the present situation) that every effort must be made to maintain and to extend all existing contacts and avenues of communication. In a very brilliant address on this subject the distinguished American poet, Archibald MacLeish, insisted that it is not the conflict of philosophies that makes the existing division so threatening but "the loss of that sense of common humanity, of a common human experience, which makes it possible for men who differ to regard each other, nevertheless, as men, and so to suffer each other's aberrations. The key to the crisis of our time is not the clash of ideologies: it is the destruction, in this mechanized and mass-minded time, of the sense of humanity—of the sense of the common lot and common destiny and common experience of mankind." The restoration of that sense of common humanity is so desperately needed, so desperately craved by men today that it is hard to believe that a real effort on the part of UNESCO to achieve its objectives can be permanently resisted by anybody who has a chance even to hear of it. I do not by any means think that UNESCO is the only good idea in the world today, but I think it is the best chance that people like ourselves have to make our contribution to the achievement of that kind of mutual understanding that will alone secure peace among the nations of the world.

Education Must Come First

By NOBLE CLARK

INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION, particularly on a world-wide basis, has always been difficult. In fact, the historical record gives rather clear indication that few, if any, nations are willing to have an international agency impose a policy on the nation which it does not want. This is the same as saying that international programs ordinarily require virtually unanimous support before they are adopted. By contrast, we in the United States are expected to abide by decisions made by majority vote, even though the minority is often nearly as large as the majority.

It is an enormous handicap at an international conference to have everyone present constantly aware that any new proposal must be able to command essentially unanimous support before adoption can be expected. At once this drastically limits the character and the scope of what can be attempted. It also puts a very high premium on the power of an organized minority to prevent action whenever this minority believes its interests are endangered.

We in the United States should be slow to take a superior attitude in this connection, however, because there are conspicuous areas in our own public life in which we permit militant minorities to impose their will on the rest of us. I need only cite as an example the little band of Southern senators who for so long have prevented the passage of legislation which would reduce the prestige and the privileges of the ruling white population in their states.

UNESCO has another inherent handicap in the deep emotional loyalties which the various peoples of the world have for the things that make up their national or racial cultures. Most of us are so made that we crave having some element or elements in our personal lives in which we can take pride. With primitive people this pride encompasses nearly every activity of the tribe; the manner in which the group carries on its activities is much the best way, and the customs of all other tribes are distinctly inferior.

These instincts of loyalty to one's own culture are very strong. They seem to operate on a national as well as on an individual level. My observations would indicate that the less a particular nation has done which has won recognition and admiration abroad, the more its citizens can be expected to express their inferiority complex by insisting that elements of their culture—their music, their art, their poetry, or some other characteristic—have very large social value, and should be preserved at all cost. They are constantly on the alert to see that no direct or indirect slight of their culture goes unchallenged.

It would be humorous, if it were not so tragic, to see the time spent by international groups in discussion and argument about the phraseology of the resolutions being considered by the representatives of the various nations. Every word and sentence is sharply scrutinized by everyone present to insure that nothing is accepted which might irritate or offend the most sensitive group which is represented. The end product is thus likely to be so general in character, so lacking in the specific, and so innocuous as to have little or no practical significance. It passes unanimously, but no one feels much responsibility afterwards for doing anything about it—not even to read the document again.

Without making invidious comparisons, it seems quite clear that UNESCO has about as difficult an assignment as any of the United Nations specialized agencies. The organization has to deal with matters which are much less tangible than ships and airplanes and food and money, but which carry a powerful emotional charge. Inevitably progress has to be slow in getting nations to work together in matters of this kind.

But the need is very great for world cooperation in education, in science, and in connection with the diverse things which make up the broad category of what we call culture. All of us, I believe, are prepared to accept the basic idea that "the defenses of peace must be constructed in the minds of men."

Based upon my brief experience as an administrator of one of the U.N. specialized agencies, I have the personal conviction that increased education, particularly in the less advanced coun-

tries, is just about the first and most urgent requisite for any substantial improvement in the welfare of the people. More education may not stop wars, as evidenced by the example of Germany, but unless ways can be found to raise significantly the educational levels of most of the world's population, there is not much likelihood that the levels of living can be appreciably lifted for these underprivileged people.

Science and technology have abundantly demonstrated that humanity now has at hand the resources and the know-how to enable mankind to build a civilization in which hunger and malnutrition would be largely eliminated, health conditions would be enormously improved, and all might live much more comfortably than at present.

The knowledge that these possibilities exist is spreading among the world's peoples. It is acting as a ferment. Populations that have lived with little change for centuries are now demanding that their governments take active measures to improve the economic status of their citizens generally, especially those who heretofore have been deprived of education and have been compelled to live on a low economic level. Governments no longer can "get by" if they give attention solely to political matters. Whether the political setup be of the left, or of the right, the people in all parts of the world, with growing insistence, are demanding that their governments create the conditions which will permit the common man to raise the level of living of himself and of his family, and he likewise wants assurance that this level will continue to rise in the years ahead.

The discontent of the underprivileged is not so much concerned with the means which are used to improve their economic conditions. They are interested primarily in results. Parenthetically I might observe that this emphasis on ends, with less regard for the means, plays directly into the hands of the Communist organizers. The disadvantaged people of the world are impatient of the incredibly slow way in which the benefits from the new findings in science and technology seep down to them. Paradoxically, the faster we in the United States, and a few other countries, such as Canada, raise our general level of living, the

more dissatisfied the citizens of the less-advanced nations become.

By far the larger portion of the nations are primarily agricultural in their economy. Most of the world's peoples are farmers, and, in terms of numbers, most of the world's farmers are using agricultural methods little better than those of their grandparents, or, for that matter, of their ancestors of a thousand years ago. The leaders of many of the less-advanced countries are trying to meet the demands of their people for better living conditions by importing from abroad the physical items which epitomize and dramatize the latest scientific achievements in agriculture in a nation such as the United States.

While I was with the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization, I was constantly being pressed by officials of member-nations to help them secure an international loan which would enable their country to construct a large modern irrigation project like the one we are building on the Columbia River. They also wanted to buy tractors and modern farm machinery, purebred livestock, fertilizer, and all the other items which our American economy has developed over the years for use by our highly skilled farm people. These representatives of nations in the Near East, in Latin America, and in Asia have the hope, and often the naïve confidence, that it is possible to apply a veneer of scientific agricultural methods on top of a rural economy little different than what existed in western Europe in the Middle Ages.

It is true that modern machinery can sometimes render useful service in a relatively undeveloped region, but in such instances the operators of the machinery are usually men brought in from abroad, and there is little real increase in the income or level of living of the uneducated local people. There simply is no royal road or short cut to agricultural efficiency. The primary requisite is a rural population which has enough education to read the instructions in the handbook which the manufacturer sends out with the machine, and enough confidence in science to try out and adopt the improved methods which scientists are constantly making available.

Likewise, you cannot expect efficiency in farming if the peasant

holdings are so small as to make the use of modern machinery impossible, and the output per farm so limited that all the farm produces is required to sustain the farm family with little or nothing left over to sell to city consumers. There must be surplus food to sell to those in industry, who in turn can then supply the farmers with the industrial goods that are required if rural life is to be anything more than hard hand labor with no possibility of a reward larger than a bare physical existence.

Neither is it realistic to expect that farming can be very successful in the judgment of the folks who work the fields and tend the livestock if the land is owned in large blocks by landlords who have things rigged in such a manner as to give farm workers—generation after generation—no hope to improve their economic or social status.

It is a tragic fact that by far the greatest portion of the world's farm lands are divided into tracts which are so small as to make efficiency impossible, or so large as to constitute what are, in effect, factories in the fields. These large holdings are operated to benefit families of inherited wealth, often urban people not even residents of the area where the land is located, and under conditions which in practice make economic advancement of the farm workers something that simply does not happen.

Efficiency in farming and the effectiveness of a nation's agriculture in serving the population as a whole are measured largely by a single yardstick. It is not the yield per acre or per farm. It is output per farm worker. No small part of the marvelous material advancement of the people of the United States is due to the fact that, whereas in 1800 it took nine farm families to support themselves and a single other family in the city, this ratio has now changed to the point where one farm family feeds itself and more than four other families in the city. This increased output per farm worker made possible our great industrial development during the past century and a half. Other nations that envy our industrial progress and wish to bring about similar developments in their countries will need to recognize the necessity of first making their agriculture efficient.

And if the agriculture of most of the world is to be made

efficient, the first step is to give the farm workers at least the basic elements of an education. These unlettered peasants and rural laborers do not lack intelligence. They are inherently as capable as other citizens. No resource of these nations is anything like as valuable as the untapped abilities of their rural people, which only await for their release the bringing to them of modest educational facilities.

You can now appreciate why UNESCO has such a strategic role in any plan to raise the level of living of the people throughout the world. Education is the central core of the UNESCO program, and education must come first if we are to have freedom from hunger, from disease, and from all of the other handicaps to a productive and a satisfying life in terms of 1948 standards.

I confess I wish that UNESCO would give a larger emphasis to this, its largest and most urgent task. It has started too many projects for the size of its budget and the number of people on its staff. It has by no means had a very realistic policy in determining priority between the unbelievably great number of proposals it has accepted. It likewise has given too much of its attention to those things which require joint action by all member-nations, and not enough to programs of leadership and persuasion to get individual governments to do for themselves what they are already in a position to do if they will but make the attempt, especially in the field of education.

The challenge which you and I face is to use our influence to win acceptance by UNESCO of those policies which we deem desirable. It will do us no good, and the cause of world co-operation great harm, if we only find fault, and refuse to give even larger support to the basic principles which UNESCO was established to promote.

For after all, the situation we face is rather simple. Either we develop effective ways to help the rest of the world to make progress towards a rising level of living, or inevitably we in the United States will find it necessary to spend a larger and larger portion of our income and our resources in protecting our higher level of living from envious people outside of our borders. These

people will act under the conviction that, if they cannot create the things for themselves which they want, their only way to get them is to take them from us. They will do this with the conviction that we deserve these better things no more than they, but that we have only been more fortunate in terms of the natural resources of this continent and the accident of where we were born.

The Communists will be quick to turn this envy and discontent to their own advantage. I am not much afraid of communism in Russia, because I know that it is an inefficient form of economic organization. But I am afraid of communism in France, Italy, Greece, Latin America, and other areas in which great groups of the population are underprivileged. These people are growing discouraged and desperate. They are ready to try drastic methods unless they see substantial improvement in their status. It would be a calamity for them and for the United States if they were to adopt communism and thus have this cancer-like form of political and economic control spread around the world. The best weapon we have available to prevent this from happening is to give these unfortunate peoples a real basis for believing they can improve their economic conditions *without* going Communist. In such a constructive program in behalf of the welfare of the world's underprivileged more education is the first and most important requisite.

The Use of Public Opinion and Market Research Techniques in Education¹

By JULIAN L. WOODWARD

ON A CERTAIN MORNING a few months ago, November 3, 1948, at 4 A. M. to be exact, I and a number of other unfortunate individuals called "pollsters" went through what the psychiatrists would call a "traumatic episode." In simpler terms, we became victims of shell shock. Since that unhappy day this particular pollster has been gradually recovering, and he now believes that the prognosis for complete recovery is favorable, both for himself and for his fellow-practitioners of the art of public-opinion polling and market research.

The first stages of the psychosis were, as you might imagine, distinctly unpleasant. It was some time before I ceased wincing at jokes by Jack Benny, Fred Allen, Bob Hope, and the other topical comedians. It was hard at first to convince myself that they were simply representing a general public that was in the process of discarding one type of magician, whose trick had gone wrong, and would soon take up with some new type of soothsayer claiming to be able to predict the future. Perhaps the pollster had simply joined the band of demoted prophets, along with the stock-market forecasters who failed to predict the 1930 depression, the economists who did predict the recession of 1947 that didn't happen, the military experts who predicted that Rommel would capture Cairo, and the weather forecasters who are always sending people to football games with the wrong clothing. All of these predictors have lost their claims to infallibility—but they have been demoted, not discharged. I began to think that, in time, the public might reinstate the pollster—not as an arch-prophet before whom all political candidates trembled—but in the much more wholesome role of a reporter of what people feel, and think, and want.

Not the least of my worries, as I gradually moved into convalescence, was how the businessman was going to react to the

¹Revised from an address given before the New England School Development Council in December 1948.

pollster's debacle. Would *he* lose faith in the tool he had employed so extensively in the last fifteen years, or would he give the market researchers a chance to learn from their election failure, and give him the still better service he admittedly could use?

I am sure of the answer to this latter question now. Business, which has used market and public-opinion research techniques to explore consumers' wants, to investigate the grievances and the state of morale of its labor force, and to measure its own standing as a citizen with the public; business, which has used the pollsters in all these ways, is going to keep right on doing so. It has decided *not* to abandon a tremendously useful tool just because it failed in one lamentable and conspicuous instance in performing the most difficult of the tasks it has tackled, namely, to predict what people are going to do before they know themselves.

So, all in all, I feel a lot better than I did on November 3. I am undoubtedly chastened—all pollsters are—but I have not lost my faith. I still believe that the techniques used in election prediction—but employed *much* more usefully and reliably elsewhere—have great possibilities of social good; even more so now that there has been a setback and forced re-evaluation of some parts of the methodology. Setbacks are good for a science—they prevent practitioners from getting too cocky and thinking they have a problem licked 100 percent when perhaps they have only an 80 percent or a 90 percent solution.

But there is a vast range of practical problems in which even 80 percent accuracy is enough—in fact is so much better than hunches, or the informed guesses of so-called experts, or the results of unsystematic polls of barber-shop opinion—that we should not put the scientific approach on the shelf while we strive for greater accuracy.

Education is one of many important fields in which decisions involving huge sums of money and important considerations of public welfare are frequently made on less good evidence than market and public-opinion surveys can already provide. In this paper I am going to tell about some of the uses to which educators might even now put the techniques of the sampling survey

of attitudes in connection with their problems. For I think that, at present, they are not employing a useful tool that lies ready to hand.

What is this technique of modern marketing and public-opinion research which I want to place at education's disposal? Briefly, it consists of two things. One of them is sampling, the other, an art of asking questions of people. Of these two, the really big contribution is in sampling. The small sampling technique developed by the statisticians is truly one of the great inventions of the century. When one can get, say an 85 percent to 95 percent accurate picture of what the citizens of the United States think on an issue by questioning around three thousand of them, you will admit the trick is good enough to be called almost, if not quite, magical. Modern market researchers report the attitude of all sorts of people with small margins of error by taking what to the layman may seem infinitesimally small samples of them. We sample to report the opinions of such different groups as the readers of a particular magazine, the people who own stock in any American corporation, the seniors in all American high schools, or any other special grouping of *Homo sapiens* in which someone takes an interest. Each group presents a special problem in sample design, but the same general principles apply to each.

I am not going to stop to tell how this sampling is done. Suffice it to say that it is done, and done well enough to hold the purely sampling error to a very small percentage. One cannot expect that the carefully selected three thousand people will *perfectly* represent the one hundred million adults, but they will come very close. The experts are pretty well agreed that, for most market research, the sampling is not the present weak spot in the operation. Sampling techniques can be improved still further, indeed better methods are already available for use whenever the slightly greater accuracy they give is really needed. The biggest problem today lies not in picking the right sample of people to talk to—it lies in getting them to tell you truthfully *and accurately* what they really think. And it is much harder to get them to be accurate than it is to get them to be truthful.

It is here that the art of asking questions comes in. It is still more an art than a science, but the pollsters have become fairly skilled at it—skilled enough to get reliable results on many issues, but not, of course, on all. When they try to find out what make and year of automobile the person being interviewed owns, they get correct answers; and from a cross-section sample they get a total picture of cars on the road and relative rates of obsolescence for different makes that is extremely valuable. When they ask questions to find out what features are liked, and what disliked, about the respondent's own, and his neighbor's, cars, they also get answers reliable enough to be of market significance. It is only when the surveyor seeks to learn if the respondent is going to buy a new car in the next twelve months, and if so what make it will be, that we come close to a situation like predicting votes for Dewey or Truman. But even then the information is useful in measuring the competitive position of a particular make of automobile, although the response error is greater than for the questions mentioned earlier.

The same logic applies to the measurement of more abstract attitudes, such as what the respondent thinks of the labor policy of the auto manufacturer, for instance. This question has to be asked in such terms as to have meaning—and the same meaning—to all the different kinds of people asked it. The results will have inaccuracies in them, but may still provide a better picture than the company public-relations expert can conjure up from other sources. And the polls can do one more thing that is extremely helpful to this same public-relations counsel. They can ask "Why?" "Why do you feel the way you do?" "What makes you say that the Speedo Automobile Company treats its workers badly?" By getting the reasons behind people's attitudes, the public opinion researchers enable the public-relations man to see what he has to do if he wants to change people's attitudes. Of all things the polls do, perhaps this is the most useful one of all.

Now of course all this sampling and question-asking has to be tied together into an organized pattern. Each piece of research has its own design that will be just as good, and no better, than

the brains and know-how behind it. Since modern techniques of sampling require both a knowledge of higher mathematics *and* experience *and* common sense, good sampling experts are rare and come very high. If you detect in this statement any innuendo concerning the ability of the wild type of *Homo statisticus* to think in common-sense terms, I hasten to deny the imputation—but faintly! It is best to catch samplers young and domesticate them—then they become invaluable, in fact, almost beyond price.

Fortunately, good interviewers are not so expensive. But if they were, we would have to pay for them, too. For the middle-aged wife of the local school principal who stands on the doorstep of Mrs. Cosentino and propounds to her the questions you have so carefully thought up and tested—this interviewer is the key to the whole operation. By a mere vocal inflection she can change the question's meaning and, so, the results. She has to be selected carefully and trained thoroughly lest she do that very thing. But that is what all the really good research houses do today. Their interviewing staffs are their most cherished assets.

This has been a too-rapid survey of a complicated technique, but perhaps it will give at least a rough idea of the thing I am now, at long last, going to discuss the use of in connection with the problems of school administrators. I am going to suggest and very briefly comment on four areas in which such use might occur. The first is in studies of the educational market, the second is in evaluation of the impact of education on the student, the third is in determining the public-relations positions of education in general or of a given educational institution in particular, and the fourth is in measuring potential public support for educational programs. Obviously all four areas overlap and are interrelated. What public support education gets will depend on the numbers of young people it caters to (in other words, its market). It will depend on what it does to and for that market when it gets them. And it will depend finally on how effectively it tells its story about these things to the general public.

Let's first take up the educational market area and view the school as a business with an actual and a potential clientele. If

the school really were a business (and sometimes it is a good idea to consider itself in that light), almost the first thing it would want to know would be, "What is our market?" Business spends huge sums of money on market research to find out who buys which company's gadgets now, why they buy them, and who else could be induced to buy them in the future. On the basis of this information product changes are made, new manufacturing plants are projected, and advertising campaigns are planned and executed.

While a public grade school may need only to watch population trends in its area in order to make a market forecast, at the high school and college level the disposition to attend becomes an important factor. As an illustration of a kind of market research aimed at measuring this disposition, let me cite a large-scale study we did for the American Council on Education. Using a carefully constructed sample of 10,000 high school seniors designed to represent the 1947 high school senior population of America, we separated them on the basis of questioning into three groups, those who had actually applied to college and hoped to go if admitted, those who said they would have applied if they were sure of getting in, and those who said they would apply if given a scholarship that would cover tuition and half their other expenditures. The three percentage figures were recently released by the American Council itself.² They are, in a sense, only a by-product in a large study that was primarily concerned with finding out what happened to those who applied for college entrance. But the figures are such as to testify to the tremendous pulling power of the college symbol. The study gives some concrete indication not only of how many high school seniors are being frustrated in their desire for a college education, but also, through analysis of the data, it tells just who these frustrated persons are, where they come from, and where they want to go to college.

It is possible also to survey the markets of particular educational institutions or of types of institutions. The private pre-

²*Factors Affecting the Admission of High School Seniors to College: A Report by Elmo Roper for the Committee on a Study of Discriminations in College Admissions* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1949).

paratory school demand is different from the public high school demand; the Harvard demand from the demand for an education at Massachusetts State. Demand obviously varies with tuition costs, and the time will come when some universities may have to ask whether they are pricing themselves out of the market, or out of the particular market from which they would like to draw students. Demand is also affected by many other factors, and the influence of some of them is probably measurable. If one is in a mood to indulge in wild flights of imagination, one can think of the very pretty demand equation that might be written for Exo University, taking into account tuition and living costs, the eminence of the professors (doubtless a minor factor), the pulchritude of the coeds, the record of the football team, and the column-inches of publicity received in the press. Fortunately, science has not advanced quite that far!

Of course, education is one of the kinds of enterprise that, like automobile manufacturing, is blessed with a seller's market in America—for the moment at least. This fact may make educators less interested in studying their potential clientele than they should be, even though the results of such research could be used in overpressed school systems as evidence of a need for additional funds.

This favorable market situation may also have been a factor in leading educators to neglect the second area of research to be dealt with, the area of research on the product. In spite of *their* favorable market position, the automobile manufacturers are not neglecting to submit the products of their assembly lines to the most rigorous tests, both before and after they leave the factory. I do not think that educators, especially college educators, do this. There is still very little effort to *evaluate*, to test the product they are turning out, except in terms of classroom examinations whose content derives from the subject matter alone and not from the use to which that subject matter may be put in life after graduation. The schools are often in the situation of testing to find out whether their products have had carburetors put in them, without going on to find out whether these carburetors will deliver the necessary power on a long hill in later life.

There is certainly an increasingly live interest in evaluation at the primary and secondary school level, but not very much yet at the college level. Few colleges have really collected evidence to prove that four years in their cloistered halls has made the student a better citizen, a more stable personality, or a more competent worker than he would have been if he had spent the time holding down a job, or alternating between job and study on the Antioch plan. Colleges frequently get accused of unduly prolonging adolescence. Have they ever set out systematically to find out if this is the case?

Of course it is not entirely proper to compare educational institutions with businesses, since they aim at different purposes, but it seems to me that it is fair to raise questions concerning the efficiency with which schools and colleges go about achieving their own purposes. When an attempt is made to answer such questions—when evaluation or product-testing really gets started—I think that the techniques of public-opinion surveying will prove indispensable. Just by way of illustration, let me outline one of the hundreds of possible studies which could be made.

Suppose Exo University wanted to find out what impact it was having on its students. Three samples of individuals matched for intellectual capacity might be set up: one of high school seniors who matriculate at Exo, one of high school seniors matriculating at other colleges than Exo, and a third of high school seniors who do not go to college at all. At the time of graduation from high school, at one-year intervals for four years thereafter, and then every two years for ten years after that, these people could be knowledge- and attitude-tested to find out what they were learning, how their attitudes on citizenship questions were changing, and what their reflections were on what they got out of their educational experience. The questionnaires would be designed to measure those things that Exo aimed to achieve with its students, both while in college and in lasting effects thereafter. To set out those aims in the form of a concrete and testable set of objectives would be in itself a wholesome experience for Exo. It is something that few educational institutions have actually done.

Such a study as I have just described would, if carried out,

certainly give the Exo board of trustees a better idea of what their educational factory was doing than most college trustees have at present—even though it might not be possible to measure all of the less-tangible influences which went into the shaping of the product, or all of the durable effects which Exo had on its graduates. The comparison between the six-year Exo alumni and the parallel group who did not go to college at all would be especially interesting.

One can think of many other types of evaluational study that might be made on the products of grade schools, high schools, and colleges, but I must move on to the third area—the area of institutional public relations. Here again a parallel with industry may be helpful. Big business today spends a great deal of money trying to find out what the public thinks of it and on measuring the success or failure of its efforts to make the public think better of it. Incidentally, business has learned that if it wants a good reputation as a public servant—as a good corporate citizen—it has, first, to act so as to deserve such a rating, and, second, it has to make its actions known.

Educational institutions, by and large, operate in a more favorable public-relations climate than does big business, but even the schools and colleges have their public-relations problems. Take a local school system for instance. What do citizens think of it? Is it thought to be well-run and progressive, or out of date, politics-ridden, overcrowded, and inefficient? What do citizens know about the new things it is trying to do and what do they think of them? What about coeducation in high schools, sex education, supervised recreation on school grounds after school hours, evening classes for adults, vocational education versus college preparation? We recently asked a cross section of citizens of the city of Louisville about these questions, in a study paid for by the municipality itself. The results of the research are to be made public. They will not only help the school superintendent to evaluate his general public-relations position in Louisville, but they will also tell him which ones of his specific innovations are "going over" and which ones he needs to explain further to local people. The study will also help to arouse the people's own interest in the problems of their schools.

As one other illustration of market-research techniques used to measure school public relations, I would like to mention a study we made several years ago for the trustees of a private preparatory school. We were asked to find out what the parents sending children to the school thought about the school in general and about specific features of its program. A random sample of the parents was interviewed, with a carefully worked-out questionnaire that left much freedom for volunteered answers while at the same time getting votes pro or con on a proposed expansion policy, on some changes in the curriculum that were under consideration, and on the way such things as homework assignments, girls' athletics, parent-teacher relations, and character education were being presently handled by the school administration. The results were a surprising, and in some quarters unexpected, vote of confidence in the school staff and their policies, but there was also a rich body of suggestions for changes and improvements which the administration took to heart.

I don't think I need to say more than a word about the fourth area in which market-research techniques might be useful to educators. It should be clear from what has gone before that public opinion surveys *can* help to find out what the public is willing to do in support of its schools. In the Louisville study, for instance, we asked whether people would be in favor of a 10 percent increase in school taxes "in order to get the money to repair and modernize old school buildings and build new ones?" One cannot conclude that the 60 percent who answered "yes" would all vote such an increase in a secret ballot on election day, but, as a measure of general sentiment, the polling result is useful. And when a city votes 6 to 1 in favor of tax support for its local university—and Louisville did this in our poll—the fact cannot help but be useful in education planning.

All this may serve to give some inkling of the possible contributions that opinion research can make in the educational field. There are obviously many others, since the technique is applicable to finding out what almost any group of people feel or think about almost all subjects, and what they are willing to do about some of them.

There remains, then, only the question of how educators can

get the services of competent public-opinion research. I must emphasize that it costs money to conduct research competently; and incompetent research—research done by untrained people—is much worse than no research at all. The pollsters' incompetence in the election is certainly a graphic illustration of this point, although the fault in this case was probably not due to lack of training or to spending too little money!

Public opinion research on a national scale probably has to be turned over to the established agencies, since they are the only ones equipped with nationally distributed interviewing staffs. But local research can be done by locally created agencies, or by the educational system's own staff, *if*—and the “*if*” is extremely important—the projects are set up by professionally competent people and the interviewers are properly trained. Many universities now have people on their staffs who can construct samples scientifically, and while not many professors have yet had much experience in writing and testing questionnaires for doorstep interviewing, or in training interviewers, the number who have had this experience is increasing. Communities can either bring in such men as consultants, or turn to the so-called commercial agencies—many of which do a good deal of non-profit or low-profit research for agencies interested in good citizenship. And, finally, the local governments can set up their own research organizations. The state of Washington already has such an agency paid for out of tax funds. And the federal government had several during the war.

In summary, then, while market and public opinion research has a long, long way to go before it achieves 100-percent accuracy—and a longer way than it thought it had last October—it has already gone far enough to be useful to business, to labor, and to government. Provided that its techniques are applied carefully and to those problems where its present accuracy is sufficient, it can be of current utility in the field of education. It can help educators to measure their markets, test their products, assay the public's reactions to present and contemplated policies, and ascertain how far the public is willing to go in according moral and financial support.

Financing Catholic Education

By MSGR. FREDERICK G. HOCHWALT

BEFORE ANY ATTEMPT is made to talk about the financial structure of Catholic education, it seems reasonable to describe briefly what it is and how extensively it is carried on. Accordingly, then, may I offer the following description.

Catholics, generally, regard education as a process whereby those deep and abiding changes are wrought which make us what we are.¹ It is something that happens to a human being as a result of self-activity. It does not result from merely listening to what someone else is saying, nor is it brought about by some process of stern and strict discipline, predicated on blind acceptance of the dictates of some external authority. We believe that education takes place whenever anyone of us cooperates with the grace that is in him and with the guidance and instruction of those who have something to teach him. Fundamentally, it is the exercise of one's own powers to acquire a full measure of the truth, a deeper love of the good, and a finer appreciation of the beautiful.

Catholic educators regard education as a social process. The curriculum of the Catholic school is based upon those elements of Christian doctrine that have always inspired Christian education; this curriculum shows the correlation of Christian principles with the social problems of today. It not only recognizes the existence of these problems but also offers solution for them through the practical application of the law of the love of God and love of neighbor. The law of God is the one, true working rule for social life; and as the curriculum for Catholic schools demonstrates, it can and must be practiced by all children, even the youngest, in order to lead to the fullness of Christian living in adult citizenship.

The Catholic educational system exists today for the benefit of all the elements which go to make up society—the individual, the family, the state, and the Church. I say this because there

¹ Rt. Rev. George Johnson, "Education for Life," *Guiding Growth in Christian Social Living* (Washington: Catholic University Press, 1944) I, 1-4.

are always those who will insist that Catholic education exists merely for the benefit of the Church; these individuals would like to think that no direct benefits can accrue to society and to the state from education carried on under the auspices of the Church. They would like to remain convinced of the fallacy that the memorization of the catechism accounts for 90 percent of Catholic school activity.

When we speak of a Catholic educational system, we are using the word "system" in a very general sense; strictly speaking, there is no organized system of Catholic education on a nation-wide level, or, for that matter, on a state-wide level. Catholic education in the United States is organized on a diocesan or archdiocesan basis. At the end of 1947 there were in this country 22 archdioceses, 99 dioceses, and one vicariate-apostolic, this latter being Alaska—a total of 122 dioceses. Within each of these corporate entities an educational system is maintained independently. Within a diocese the over-all responsibility lies in the hands of the bishop who delegates the authority for educational matters on the elementary and secondary school levels to a superintendent of schools or a secretary of education. Apart from these diocesan schools there are independent private schools and academies which are only indirectly a concern of the bishop. In the field of higher education some of the colleges and universities are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of the diocese; others are directly controlled and operated by exempt religious communities whose responsibilities to the diocese are nominal or nonexistent.

Usually whatever takes place educationally within a diocesan school system is the responsibility of the bishop; he must staff his schools with trained teachers, provide adequate supervision, and plan for a diocesan-wide curriculum and course of studies that can be adjusted to the community needs of all the elements that constitute his diocese—counties, cities, and small towns. Although he needs an over-all pattern for his flock, he does not want a lockstep system that confines or stultifies. The responsibility for the individual elementary school devolves upon the pastor of each parish, who is responsible for the fiscal policy

and the immediate administration of his parish unit. Occasionally the pastor has complete charge of a secondary school, but more often the secondary schools are joint enterprises of several parishes or are a diocesan project for which the whole diocese is financially responsible.

What is the extent of education under Catholic auspices in the United States? According to figures compiled by the Department of Education of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, there are almost three million students in schools of all levels from kindergarten through the university. (In 1945-46 there were 2,870,056 students.) These students are attending 10,654 schools and are under the instruction of 104,565 teachers. How is this educational system, or rather series of systems, financed? Chiefly through the freewill donations of Catholic parishioners who make the whole structure possible; there are some instances, however, in which a tuition charge is levied against pupils. The tuition charge is standard procedure in secondary schools and colleges. To determine the trend in elementary schools the Department of Education, N.C.W.C., made, in April 1948, a partial survey of the tuition charges in diocesan elementary schools.

A questionnaire on this subject brought a 75.4 percent response from 122 dioceses and accounted for the existing situation in 75.9 percent of Catholic elementary schools. More than half of the elementary schools, 55.2 percent, do not charge any tuition to students, while 34.7 percent do charge tuition to those able to pay. Of the dioceses that charge tuition, 21 stated that they make no charge to children of parishioners. Four dioceses lower the tuition fees when more than one child of a family is in attendance at a parochial school. The tuition fees range from \$1.00 to \$3.00 per month. It is difficult to isolate the tuition trends into meaningful figures; for instance, one diocese reports that the charge is \$15 per family, while another levies \$3.00 for the first child, \$1.50 for the second, and so on, down to a diminishing return of no fee at all. Twenty-eight dioceses reported that a charge of \$1.00 or less per month was made; 17 stated that school tuition was \$2.00, while 14 indicated that they

made a charge of \$3.00 or more per month. Some dioceses that have a school fee make an additional charge for children in attendance who live outside the parish limits.

In addition to the question of tuition fees, the N.C.W.C. investigated the problem of textbook fees. Approximately 41 percent of the schools furnishing information stated that textbooks are paid for by the individual child; 14.6 percent of the schools furnish textbooks without charge as a regular service. More than two thousand schools, 33.9 percent, rent textbooks to pupils at a nominal rate; the state furnishes the texts in 3.5 percent of the schools reporting (7 percent did not report).

It should be quite evident that the tuition fees for elementary schools do not constitute a sufficient income to pay for current operating expenses. In some cases the fees are large enough to pay for the salary of the religious teachers; usually the school costs are budgeted along with general parish expenses and are provided for from the general offertory collection. In quite a few parishes a budget system is used in which a set amount is determined upon as the contribution for education. This collection is usually secured by means of an envelope system in which specified amounts are placed in various pockets of the envelopes. In some other instances the pastor or the church treasurer may call on families and take up a special educational subscription, or this amount may be billed pro rata to all families of the parish.

I think it is in order to point out that parish obligations remain obligations of the parish. It is not customary for pastors who fail to collect the necessary amounts to maintain the parish plant to look to the bishop for assistance. The parish unit is expected to be self-contained and financed.

I mentioned above that tuition fees, where they are charged, are at times large enough to pay for the salaries of religious teachers. I would like to expand that statement. To be exact, the amount paid to the teachers, or, more accurately, to their religious communities, is not large enough to justify the word "salary." From facts that have been brought to my attention from time to time, I believe it can be reliably reported that the

range of pay per teacher in elementary grades is from \$300 to \$600 per year depending upon locality and custom. The amount is paid directly to the religious community by the pastor and is large enough to provide only for subsistence and clothing. The median for the country is probably between \$375 and \$400 per teacher.

Many people would like to know the exact per pupil cost of Catholic education for the 122 dioceses in the United States. The facts and figures, however, are not easy to secure because of several inherent difficulties in parochial organization. Pastors are not wont to look upon Catholic education as an independent entity that has to be maintained and operated; for most pastors the school is but one part of the parish organization and is treated accordingly on the parish records. In nearly all cases school costs are budgeted as general items with other parish expenses. In many cases one boiler heats school and church; the coal costs are not apportioned to the one or other but may be carried as one general item; aside from an estimate the pastor would be at a loss as to how to determine how much coal was used for the one or the other. Electric lighting is often measured by one meter with no thought of a statistical breakdown for school or church costs. Janitors, too, are often used for school and church, parish house and convent. This situation is gradually being changed, and the parochial schools before long will be able to work out a cost system that will adequately describe the financial picture of parochial education. Because of the lack of such an over-all formula at this time, there can be no definite determination of parochial school costs on a national level, although an approximate figure will be suggested later in this paper.

One of the few scientific studies on the cost of Catholic education on a state-wide basis was made by the Rev. Russell Boehning, instructor in economics at Gonzaga University. His task was relatively easy since there are only two dioceses within the state of Washington—Seattle and Spokane. The study was undertaken for the year 1946. It reveals that 10.8 percent of the population of the state is Catholic. These people support a

system of 118 fully accredited colleges, high schools, and grade schools. These schools are educating 25,804 of America's young men and women; and of these 2,067 are non-Catholic students.

In the Boehning study the term "school" is understood as including the entire school unit. In the case of parochial schools, this means everything but the church and the rectory. The term "school" is taken to include the school buildings proper, equipment, library, gymnasium, auditorium, and sisters' convent.

Under the general heading of current operating expenses were included the following charges: expenses for janitors, fuel, lights, general upkeep, and miscellaneous expenses. Separate accounting was made of the costs for books and supplies to the students and to the schools. Under "fixed expenses" were included the insurance costs, interest expense, and depreciation. The study evaluates the schools on a prewar basis. Again it must be remembered that the cost attached to the salary of priests and religious in no way reflects the true cost of instruction. The salaries reported throughout the study are based on the mere living expenses of the teachers. This is in sharp contrast to the salaries paid to public school teachers performing the same function. The difference, as the author of the study points out, is the direct contribution to Catholic education made by consecrated men and women who have dedicated their lives to make Catholic education available at the very minimum expense.

The study of educational costs for the five colleges and universities of the state plus two collegiate seminaries was based on the following census: 3,890 students (1,023 non-Catholic) taught by 124 priests and religious teachers and 86 lay teachers. A summary of the costs is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
COST OF CATHOLIC HIGHER EDUCATION IN WASHINGTON FOR 1946

	Total	Per Student
Current operating expenses.....	\$265,692.14	\$ 68.30
Fixed expenses	100,762.88	26.52
Students' books and supplies.....	149,183.04	38.35
Schools' books and supplies.....	18,099.93	4.85
Lay-teachers' salaries	135,552.75	34.85
Priests' and religious' salaries.....	148,700.00	38.23
Total cost	\$817,990.74	\$211.10

In the state of Washington there are 34 Catholic secondary schools educating 5,029 students (319 non-Catholic). These Catholic high schools are staffed by 273 priests and religious teachers and 34 lay teachers, a ratio of one teacher for 16.4 students (public school ratio—25.6 students per teacher). The secondary school costs are summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2

COST OF CATHOLIC SECONDARY EDUCATION IN WASHINGTON FOR 1946

	Total	Per Student
Current operating expenses.....	\$233,973.50	\$ 46.52
Fixed expenses	86,914.13	17.28
Students' books and supplies.....	42,207.63	8.39
Schools' books and supplies.....	21,124.50	4.20
Lay-teachers' salaries	39,903.41	7.93
Priests' and religious' salaries.....	214,650.00	42.68
Total cost	\$638,773.17	\$127.00

It is quite apparent from the Boehning study and from the statistics gathered by N.C.W.C. that the elementary school is the backbone of the Catholic educational system. Four-fifths of all Catholic school students are attending grade schools. The state of Washington has 77 Catholic grade schools educating 16,885 students, of whom 725 are non-Catholic. These elementary schools are staffed almost exclusively by women in religious life. Catholic grade schools in the state of Washington are conducted by 504 religious women, 10 priests and religious men, and 18 lay teachers. The ratio of students to teachers is 32.3 students per teacher (public school ratio—32.7 students per teacher). Table 3 itemizes costs in the state of Washington for Catholic elementary education for 1946.

TABLE 3

COST OF CATHOLIC ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN WASHINGTON FOR 1946

	Total	Per Student
Current operating expenses.....	\$252,049.85	\$15.00
Fixed expenses	176,062.98	10.43
Students' books and supplies.....	72,181.49	4.28
Schools' books and supplies.....	58,080.61	3.44
Lay-teachers' salaries	12,301.16	.73
Priests' and religious' salaries.....	214,727.50	12.72
Total cost	\$785,403.59	\$46.60

In estimating the value of Catholic school buildings in the state of Washington Boehning based his studies upon insurance valuations and, hence, does not include the values of the school lands. Insurance values represent 90 percent of the actual valuation of the buildings.

The cash school building values maintained for the state of Washington in 1946 according to Boehning are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4
CASH SCHOOL BUILDING VALUES IN WASHINGTON FOR 1946

	Per Student	Insured Value	Actual Value
Higher education	\$834.21	\$3,255,261.36	
Secondary education	426.95	2,147,162.62	
Elementary education	250.60	4,231,411.82	
Total insured valuation (90 percent of actual value)		\$9,633,835.80	
Total actual value of Catholic schools in Washington.....			\$10,704,262.00

The per-student insured valuation of Catholic schools has been listed in Table 4. However, for comparative purposes, the average insured per-student value of Catholic elementary and secondary schools in the state of Washington was \$291.07, or 52.6 percent of the value of the public schools. Boehning suggests that a comparative cost per student in daily attendance would be valuable. The published average cost per student in the public elementary schools in the state of Washington for 1946 was \$162.28, and \$240.59 for secondary school students. In comparison the average cost per student in the Catholic elementary school for the same period was \$46.40, or 28.7 percent of the public elementary school per-student costs. The average cost per student in Catholic secondary schools was \$127, or 53.2 percent of the public secondary per-student costs.

What is the national cost of education carried on under Catholic auspices? If the figures used in the Boehning study for the state of Washington be regarded as average expenditures both in public and parochial schools, then it is possible to arrive at an estimate. Table 5 arrives at totals by using the average cost of Catholic education in Washington and multiplying by the number of Catholic students at each level (1945-46 N.C.W.C. statistics).

TABLE 5

ESTIMATED NATIONAL COST OF CATHOLIC EDUCATION FOR 1945-46

	No. of Students	Cost Per Student	Total Cost Per Level
Elementary education	2,140,840	\$ 46.60	\$ 99,763,144.00
Secondary education	467,039	127.00	59,313,953.00
Higher education	231,923	211.10	48,958,945.30
Total	2,839,802		\$208,036,042.30

This is a tremendous investment in an educational enterprise, and it represents a great sacrifice for a great conviction. Catholic parents evidently believe that Catholic education is worth the investment.

The Catholic conviction represents a tremendous contribution to the American taxpayer. Catholic parents pay not only more than two hundred million dollars for their own schools, but also continue to pay taxes that public education may successfully be continued. In a study made by the Department of Education, N.C.W.C., in 1947, using the United States Office of Education enrollment figures of 1943-44 as the base, it was estimated that the Catholic school system saved the taxpayers \$374,877,327.08.

In his study for the state of Washington Boehning indicates that a capital expenditure of \$12,124,796.06 would be necessary if the state were to supply the needed school property to educate under public auspices the children now in Catholic schools. And if elementary and secondary education were carried on at the present average rate in these public schools, it would require \$3,949,824.91 in addition to provide for the children now in the Catholic schools.

What of the future of Catholic education in the United States? The answer to that question is closely tied in with a number of other considerations and factors. If there is no business recession or depression, Catholic education will probably continue to expand on college and university levels and on secondary school levels especially. To a lesser degree there will be an increase on elementary school levels. The depression years, 1930-34, brought great hardship to Catholic education, especially on the secondary school level, and just at a time when it seemed neces-

sary to expand that level. In the education program carried on under Catholic auspices, as in other forms of education, the lesson has been learned that it is not the initial investment but the continued pressure to pay for current expenditures that makes educational activity a burden. The need for more trained teachers is a basic consideration. Schools can expand no faster than good teachers can be provided. If the increased demand for religious teachers cannot be met, then the solution lies in the use of laymen and laywomen with a consequent rise in costs.

The whole problem of federal aid is not unrelated to Catholic education. If the funds available under federal aid provisions are denied to private schools for all purposes and if, nevertheless, standards for teacher training, accreditation, and all the multiple requirements of modern education continue to rise, then a corresponding burden is placed on private education, with no promise of amelioration and no consideration for the contribution made to society and the state by private education. No one can oppose rising standards if they are "real," but if they become "artificial" and are created merely for the sake of the teacher, or for teachers' lobbies and not for the benefit of the child, then educators who believe in "real" standards ought to become quite vocal in their defense and realization.

Financing education is a serious business; defensible spending may become an acute issue within the next few years. Moreover, the place and price of private education in American life cannot be ignored as a factor in the over-all educational picture. It seems to me that the case for private education needs to be presented fairly and adequately to the American people.

The
EDUCATIONAL RECORD

VOLUME XXX

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1949

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION 1949-50

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The Educational Record

July 1949

A. J. BRUMBAUGH, *Editor*

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Contributors to This Issue

The Council is pleased to present in this issue four of the excellent papers given at its annual meeting in May. The contributors are:

HEROLD C. HUNT, General Superintendent of Chicago Schools, is a member of the Council's Executive Committee and former chairman of the Council. Mr. Hunt formerly taught at the University of Chicago and at Columbia University and has served as president of the American Association of School Administrators.

ROBERT A. TAFT, Senator from Ohio, has been a member of the U.S. Senate since 1938. In the Eighty-First Congress he served on the Senate Committees on Labor and Public Welfare,

Finance, and the Joint Committee on the Economic Report.

PAUL G. HOFFMAN is administrator for Economic Cooperation. He resigned as president of the Studebaker Corporation to assume this post. Mr. Hoffman received the American Education Award for 1948. He is author of *Seven Roads to Safety*.

EARL J. McGRATH, U.S. Commissioner of Education, is a member of the U.S. National Commission for Unesco. He was formerly a member of the faculty of the State University of Iowa and of the University of Chicago.

GEORGE F. ZOOK, who makes his annual report in this issue, has been president of the American Council on Education since 1934.

The Educational Record



The President's Annual Report

MAY 6, 1949

IT IS OBVIOUS that at the annual meeting of the American Council on Education I can relate only a small portion of the story with respect to the Council's activities during the past year. The remainder you will have to read, if you are courageous enough to do so, in the full printed report which appears in the July issue of THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD. Moreover, I find myself increasingly inclined at the annual meeting not merely to set forth the facts with respect to our progress and accomplishments but rather to use a few of these facts as the basis for a certain amount of personal observation and interpretation. The present document is my fifteenth annual report to the representatives of the member organizations and institutions of the American Council on Education.

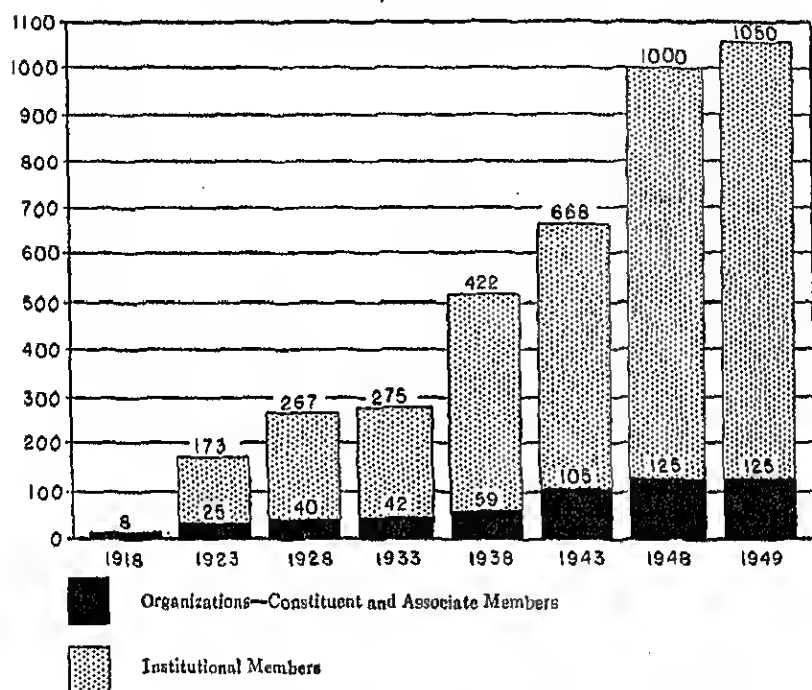
I. ADMINISTRATIVE DEVELOPMENTS

MEMBERSHIP

During the past year the membership of the Council has increased from 1,004 to 1,050. The changes in the various classes of membership are as follows: constituent member organizations, 66 to 68; associate member organizations, the same number, 57; institutional members—universities, colleges, school systems and private schools—881 to 925; total 1,050. [The

increase at intervals is shown on the accompanying chart.] I am sure that we may all take pride in this very gratifying growth in the Council's membership. Practically all of the important national educational organizations are members of the Council.

GROWTH OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
MEMBERSHIP, 1918 TO MAY 1949



With one exception, every state university is a member of the Council. A very large portion of all institutions accredited by the regional associations and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education are institutional members, as are a very gratifying number of the state departments of education and local school systems, both public and private. This comprehensive character of the Council is unique and a source of great strength and support.

The following institutions and organizations have been admitted to membership in the Council between May 1948 and May 1949:

Constituent

American Council on Pharmaceutical Education
Association of University Evening Colleges
Bureau of Professional Education in Colleges, American Osteopathic
Association

Associate

Alpha Epsilon Delta (premedical fraternity)
United States National Student Association
World Student Service Fund

Institutional

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College, Normal
Allen University, Columbia, South Carolina
Benedict College, Columbia, South Carolina
Claflin University, Orangeburg, South Carolina
Elizabethtown College, Elizabethtown, Pennsylvania
Howard Payne College, Brownwood, Texas
Kentucky Wesleyan College, Winchester
Langston University, Langston, Oklahoma
Linfield College, McMinnville, Oregon
Louisiana College, Pineville
Mary Washington College, Fredericksburg, Virginia
Miles College, Birmingham, Alabama
Philander Smith College, Little Rock, Arkansas
Rivier College, Nashua, New Hampshire
Scarritt College, Nashville, Tennessee
St. Augustine's College, Raleigh, North Carolina
*Transylvania College, Lexington, Kentucky
Union University, Jackson, Tennessee
University of Houston, Houston, Texas
Yeshiva College, New York City

TEACHERS COLLEGES

Austin Peay State College, Clarksville, Tennessee
Bluefield State College, Bluefield, West Virginia
Holy Names College, Spokane, Washington
New Jersey State Teachers College, Jersey City
* Renewal of a formerly held membership.

Pennsylvania State Teachers College, Millersville
Wisconsin State Teachers College, Eau Claire

JUNIOR COLLEGES

Chicago City Junior College, Wilson Branch, Chicago, Illinois
Del Mar College, Corpus Christi, Texas
Gardner-Webb College, Boiling Springs, North Carolina
Hillyer College, Junior College Division, Hartford, Connecticut
Jefferson City Junior College, Jefferson City, Missouri
La Salle-Peru Township Junior College, La Salle, Illinois
Lee Junior College, Baytown, Texas
Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock, Arkansas
Menlo Park School and College, Menlo Park, California
Morristown College, Morristown, Tennessee
Northern Oklahoma Junior College, Tonkawa, Oklahoma
Peace College, Raleigh, North Carolina
South Georgia College, College, Georgia
St. Petersburg Junior College, St. Petersburg, Florida

STATE BOARDS AND DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

Delaware State Department of Public Instruction
Iowa State Board of Education
Board of Trustees of Mississippi Institutions of Higher Learning
South Carolina State Department of Education

PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Berks County (Pennsylvania) Public Schools
Buffalo (New York) Board of Education
Cedar Rapids (Iowa) Independent School District
McKeesport (Pennsylvania) Public Schools
Washington (D. C.) Public Schools

SPECIALIZED ORGANIZATIONS

Rosenberg Foundation, San Francisco, California
Utah Conference on Higher Education, Salt Lake City

FINANCES

The central office of the Council has, through the years, been supported from two sources, first, the dues charged member organizations and institutions, and, second, grants of money from

the General Education Board. At the end of the present fiscal year we shall have remaining from the second source the sum of approximately \$84,335. Obviously, it is desirable that the central office of the Council be self-supporting, if possible, in order that the energies of the staff may be expended in the conception and development of—including securing financial support for—individual projects. For a number of years it looked out of the question to reach this goal.

But last year, at this time, the Executive Committee decided to see if we could not succeed in attaining self-support. Hence, effective January 1, 1949, institutional membership dues were put on a sliding scale beginning with \$50 per year for junior colleges whose enrollment is less than 500 students; \$75 per year for junior colleges whose enrollment is 500 and over; \$100 per year for four-year colleges whose enrollment is up to 1,199; \$150 per year for institutions whose enrollment is from 1,200 to 4,999; and \$200 for institutions with an enrollment in excess of 5,000. Also, the dues of associate members were raised to \$25 per year. The dues of the constituent member organizations and school systems, both public and private, remained the same—\$100 and \$50 respectively. The Executive Committee and the staff have been gratified at the favorable response which, on the basis of our present membership, should produce approximately \$109,500 per year. This increase in income comes very near, as the budget will show, to putting the central office of the Council on a self-supporting basis. What, therefore, looked quite impossible for many years is now happily near to realization.

The budget of the publications revolving fund, for obvious reasons, is separated from the current expense budget. During the current year the income and expenditures were estimated at \$154,000. Already, two months prior to the close of the fiscal year, the income is \$135,500 and the expenditures are \$108,000. In the meantime, it is gratifying to report that there is a cash balance of \$108,464.74 on hand in the publications fund, most of which belongs to particular projects such as the handbook *American Universities and Colleges*, or comes from the sale of

the publications of particular projects such as the Commission on Teacher Education. In addition, our bills receivable and inventory of books and pamphlets are conservatively estimated at \$58,914.81.

The major part of the Council's income comes from foundations in support of special projects or from contracts with various federal agencies for studies and services. During the current year the Council has available \$831,150 for these purposes. Thus, the total funds available for all types of Council activities during the current fiscal year will be approximately \$1,190,150.

The budgets for current expenses and for the publications revolving fund for the fiscal year beginning July 1 next are not substantially different from those of last year. They amount to \$153,000 and \$134,600 respectively. They will be presented to you for action at the business session tomorrow afternoon.

The Building Committee and the Executive Committee have continued their consideration of the need for a Council building. For several years it has been necessary to locate two important Council projects elsewhere in the city. Now it develops that we shall be asked to give up some of the space we are occupying at 744 Jackson Place. Moreover, a number of member organizations have recently encountered difficulty in securing satisfactory quarters. For some time it has been evident to them and to us that frequent contacts and cooperation would be greatly facilitated if they could be housed in a Council building with us.

What has hitherto been scarcely more than a hope seems nearer realization since the Council now has on hand, arising out of the settlement from the test merger and the building fund begun three years ago, nearly \$200,000 which can be used toward this purpose. I trust, therefore, that our dream of a Council building may not be postponed much longer.

GRANTS

During the year 1948-49 grants for special purposes amounting to \$468,534.18 have been made to the Council by educational foundations, agencies of the United States government, and other groups, as follows:

ASSOCIATION OF BUSINESS OFFICERS IN SCHOOLS FOR NEGROES

\$200 toward the support of the manual on college and university business administration.

CARNEGIE CORPORATION

\$2,500 for the use of the Canada-United States Committee on Education.

\$26,000 toward the support of the work of the National Teacher Examinations.

CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE

\$750 for the use of the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO in connection with the employment of a script writer for service at the UNESCO National Conference, Cleveland, Ohio, March 31-April 2, 1949.

\$1,000 toward the expenses of the Conference on the Role of Universities and Colleges in International Understanding, Estes Park, Colorado, June 19-22, 1949.

CIVIL AERONAUTICS ADMINISTRATION

\$8,000 for the evaluation and planning of aeronautical curriculums and programs for use by schoolteachers and teacher-training institutions.

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS

\$7,500 or as much thereof as is necessary, for a survey of the branch of the University of Massachusetts located at Fort Devens, Massachusetts.

FIELD FOUNDATION

\$2,500 for the work of the Committee on Education and Social Security.

EDWARD W. HAZEN FOUNDATION

\$2,500 toward the expenses of holding a conference on international education during the summer of 1949 (Estes Park, Colorado, June 19-22, 1949).

\$4,500 for the support of the advisory service of the Committee on Student Personnel Work, for the year 1948-49.

GRANT FOUNDATION, INC.

\$60,000 for a three-year study of the personal qualities and interests characterizing successful teachers, under the direction of David G. Ryans.

ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION

- \$8,000 for the expenses of a panel on teacher education, established by the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, to work with the Advisory Committee on Educational and Cultural Relations with the Occupied Countries.
- \$25,000 for the work of the Advisory Committee on Educational and Cultural Relations with Occupied Countries, for the year beginning June 1, 1948.
- \$50,000 for the work of the Advisory Committee on Educational and Cultural Relations with Occupied Countries, for the period May 1, 1949, to July 31, 1950.

LESSING J. ROSENWALD FOUNDATION

- \$10,000 for the activities of the Committee on Education and Social Security.

TENNESSEE VALLEY AUTHORITY

- \$3,000 per year, until mutually terminated, for the services of the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education in connection with educational problems.

TIMKEN FOUNDATION

- \$6,975 for the expenses of a survey to determine the desirability of establishing postsecondary-school educational opportunities in Canton, Ohio.

U.S. ARMED FORCES INSTITUTE

- \$25,000 as an extension of a contract between the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences and the U.S. Armed Forces Institute, from April 1, 1949, through March 31, 1950, to provide for the furnishing of services for the evaluation of USAFI materials.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY

- \$3,400 for the conduct of a survey of the Navy School of Music.
- \$8,000 for consulting services on scientific research and technical problems and for the Naval Scientific Personnel Advisory Committee. Available September 27, 1948, to June 30, 1949.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF STATE

- \$11,000 additional for assistance to U.S. Cultural Centers in Argentina.

\$25,967 additional for the program of aid to American schools in other American republics. To be expended or obligated prior to December 31, 1948.

\$171,000 for the work of the Inter-American Schools Service and the program of aid to American Schools in Other American Republics, for the period ending September 30, 1949.

U.S. NATIONAL COMMISSION ON INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION

\$742.18 for the expenses of printing and distributing the study on Textbook Improvement and International Understanding, by I. James Quillen.

GEORGE W. WIDENER

\$5,000 during 1949 for the activities of the Committee on Education and Social Security.

STAFF.

During the year it was necessary for the president of the Council, George F. Zook, to go abroad twice. From August 2 to 13, 1949, he attended the international Preparatory Conference of Representatives of Universities, held at the University of Utrecht, the Netherlands, during which conference he acted as chairman of the United States delegation and chairman of Section V of the conference. This section dealt with continuing international cooperation among universities. The conference scheduled for June 1949 at Estes Park, Colorado, referred to elsewhere in this report, is in part an outgrowth of deliberations at the Utrecht conference. Later, from November 17 to December, Mr. Zook served as a member of the United States delegation to the Third International UNESCO Conference, held in Beirut, Lebanon. Most of Mr. Zook's efforts at that meeting were devoted to the Administrative Committee's activities. In connection with the trip to Beirut Mr. Zook was able to have short visits in Syria, Greece, and Turkey.

Four individuals have served at the Council during this last year for brief periods. George W. Angell, on leave from Michigan State College, spent from September 22 to December 22, 1948, at the Council offices, to carry on an exploratory study of the evaluation programs in general education in twenty-five institutions of higher education.

Mitchell Dreese, on leave from George Washington University during the first semester of the academic year, contributed his services to the Council for the carrying on of a special project on the effect of veterans counseling centers in the development of personnel services in a selected group of colleges and universities in the United States, which investigation included visits to a limited number of institutions.

Maris M. Proffitt, formerly a member of the staff of the United States Office of Education, carried on during the summer of 1948 a considerable number of the activities usually engaged in by Francis J. Brown, while Mr. Brown was in Paris at the UNESCO headquarters office. After Mr. Brown's return Mr. Proffitt continued at the Council until May 1949 giving valuable assistance in many directions.

To plan for the Conference on the Role of Colleges and Universities in International Understanding, at Estes Park, Colorado, June 19-22, 1949, the Council was able to secure the services of Howard Lee Nostrand, on leave from the University of Washington, in Seattle. Mr. Nostrand will also prepare the report on the proceedings of the Estes Park conference.¹

John E. Ivey, Jr., who for many years served as executive secretary of the Council's Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education, resigned that post along with other commitments, to become director of the Regional Council for Education,² located in Atlanta, Georgia. Mr. Ivey will, however, retain his connection with the Council's committee through membership in the group.

Harold E. Snyder, who served at the Council first with the Committee on Teacher Education and later as the director of the Commission on International Educational Rehabilitation, became the director of the Advisory Committee on Educational and Cultural Relations with Occupied Countries on September 1, 1948. The Advisory Committee has recently been renamed the Commission on the Occupied Areas, and Mr. Snyder continues as director.

¹ *The Role of Colleges and Universities in International Understanding*, Studies, Series I, No. 38 (Washington: American Council on Education, 1949).

² Subsequently renamed "Board of Control for Southern Regional Education."

A unique experience came to the director of the Council's Inter-American Schools Service, Roy Tasco Davis, during the summer of 1948, with the acceptance of an invitation extended by the Navy Department to accompany the midshipmen of the United States Naval Academy on their summer cruise. Mr. Davis was assigned to the aircraft carrier *Coral Sea*. The trip gave him, and a number of other educators who made the cruise on various ships, a good opportunity to observe the training-on-the-job program which the Naval Academy gives its undergraduates in connection with the academic curriculum.

The Council's vice-president, A. J. Brumbaugh, who has been a member of the Loyalty Review Board established within the United States Civil Service Commission, is serving as vice-chairman of the board, and is an active participant in the review of the cases brought before the board for its consideration.

As of the 1949 annual meeting, the Council loses the valued services of one of its long-time associates in the resignation of the Council's treasurer, Corcoran Thom. Mr. Thom became the first treasurer of the Council in May 1919, at a time when it had a budget of only \$20,000. He has faithfully served the Council through the ensuing thirty years, severing his connection with us only because he is retiring from active connection with the American Security and Trust Company, of which he was long president and later chairman of the board, and also relinquishing other organizational connections. Mr. Thom has generously given us his time, talents, and advice, and we greatly regret that the day has arrived when we must select his successor. The Council and, through it, the educational organizations and institutions of the United States are grateful to him for his long and faithful service.

PUBLICATIONS

The publications division issued twenty-two publications during the twelve months between May 1, 1948, and April 30, 1949. Most of these were distributed to the membership without charge. The total size of this distribution—which we consider an essential service to our members—can be understood

when I tell you that it not only included 17,000 copies of the currently published books and pamphlets, but also 20,000 copies of the four issues of **THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD** and 98,000 copies of the 13 issues of the bulletin *Higher Education and National Affairs* and its Emergency Supplement.

When to this substantial quantity there are added the sales during 1948 of 50,400 books, 11,400 *Studies*, and 100,000 items of the various materials of the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards, it can be seen that the publications division has had an active year.

I am happy to report that the distribution of *American Universities and Colleges* and *American Junior Colleges* has been most satisfactory. More than 11,000 copies of *American Universities and Colleges* and 6,000 copies of *American Junior Colleges* have been sold since the new editions were published in April 1948. These figures represent more than double the sales of any previous editions. Both books are in their second printings.

As the Council's publishing program has grown, it has become necessary to broaden the advertising program and channels of distribution. A complete catalog was issued in 1948, in addition to the various circulars describing particular publications. Exhibits were held at educational and library meetings. For the first time the Council's books are listed in *Books in Print* and the *Trade List Annual*, the standard references for bookstores and libraries.

The report of the 1948 Educational Conference sponsored by the Educational Records Bureau and the Council was published for the first time in Series I of the Council *Studies*. From 1938 to 1947 these reports were issued as Supplements to the January issue of **THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD**. The Supplements have been discontinued.

During the year just passed the publications programs of the Cooperative Study in General Education and the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs were completed. New series of publications were started for the

Pharmaceutical Survey, the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, and the Committee on a Study of Discriminations in College Admissions.

There has been an increasing demand for the use of quotations from Council books. During 1948 seventy-eight extracts were quoted from forty Council books. No other factor shows more clearly the basic value of publications than their use in other books, and, I am sure, it is a satisfaction to the members of the Council that so many Council books are regarded to be of high quality.

II. PROBLEMS AND POLICIES COMMITTEE

The Problems and Policies Committee, J. L. Morrill, chairman, has had but one meeting during the course of the year just past. The general subject of the meeting related to the findings in the report of the President's Commission on Higher Education and any actions which the Council should take to implement or give further consideration to those findings.

It was not difficult for the committee to agree at once that something ought to be done with respect to the preparation of college teachers. The discussion included the possibility of setting up a continuing representative committee or commission which should serve as a clearinghouse of information and as an agency to stimulate widespread experimentation. As a result of this request, tentative plans have been made to hold, during the forthcoming winter, a fairly big conference to give further consideration to this important matter.

Next, the Problems and Policies Committee identified the need, as recommended by the President's Commission, for extending the opportunity for higher education to a larger portion of the college-age population. First in importance seemed to be the possibility of inducing the Congress to pass a bill providing for a national system of scholarships and fellowships to be available to students enrolled in both publicly controlled and privately controlled institutions of higher education. Since that time the Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government, as set forth in another part of this

report, has given considerable attention to this proposal, and two members of the Council staff participated in a two-day conference on the subject held by the U.S. Office of Education.

Equally the Problems and Policies Committee stressed the need for giving further consideration to the expansion of junior colleges. However, no action has yet been taken.

Arrangements will be made to hold a meeting of the Problems and Policies Committee in the early future. At that time, the committee may properly give attention to appropriate follow-up measures on the matters discussed above, to further consideration of a national survey of business education, to the request of the Executive Committee, last February, to consider the financial support of the privately controlled colleges, to several recommendations of the Pacific Coast conference on higher education held in July 1948, and to a number of emerging problems such as loyalty oaths, the financial support of medical education, and the like.

PROPOSED SURVEY OF INDEPENDENT SECONDARY SCHOOLS

One of the projects which received the cordial approval of the Problems and Policies Committee, two years ago, related to a proposed survey of the independent secondary schools. As I stated last year there is a genuine desire on the part of educational leaders, including particularly those connected with these schools, to review the place and function of the independent school in American society.

Under the plans for the proposed study, which have been developed in cooperation with the National Council of Independent Schools, it is expected to explore and evaluate such subjects as the sociological composition of the parents who send their children to independent schools; the quality of educational resources in these schools; the special educational opportunities which they provide; the educational effects of these special opportunities; the extent to which independent secondary education contributes to, or detracts from, public revenue; and the influences of independent schools on public education.

The proposed survey of independent schools seems to me to be a worthy and important project which ought to shed a good deal of light on the development of secondary education in this country. Yet, so far, it has proved impossible to secure funds with which to finance it. I trust that it may prove possible to do so in the early future.

III. LEGISLATION AND RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

The growing importance of legislation and its potential influence upon education is indicated by the fact that more than 300 bills that directly affect education have been introduced in this session of the Congress. Many of these are overlapping; for example, there are a dozen bills that would exempt educational institutions from the payment of amusements taxes. Many of the bills will be given little consideration, but there are others that are of very serious consequence and have promise of definite action.

The general Federal Aid to Education Bill approved by the Senate in the 80th Congress passed the Senate again in this Congress only yesterday, May 5. Its progress in the House is not so promising. This is clearly indicated by the introduction of a House bill by the chairman of the Committee on Education and Labor which departs in several significant respects from the bill approved by the Senate. The fact that the amount of federal aid is much greater than in the Senate bill is not of serious consequence. More important in effecting passage of federal aid legislation is the fact that the new bill requires that federal funds shall go both to public and to private schools for development of services to children including health, nonreligious textbooks, and transportation, and shall go also to both private and public organizations and institutions which develop programs of adult education. Other bills are being contemplated which limit the use of federal money exclusively to public schools for educational purposes only.

These bills again raise the basic issue of the allocation of federal funds in aid of private education. About this matter

there has been more confusion among the members of the Congress and the public generally than there ought to be. In the first place it should be remembered that under our system of government the control of education is one of those powers reserved to the states. Hence it follows that the states should be left free to distribute public funds in support of education, including those received from the federal government, as they choose, except insofar as federal authority under the Constitution is involved, as in the case of protecting the rights of Negroes under the Fourteenth Amendment for a fair distribution of federal funds. Similarly the Supreme Court has ruled against the use of public funds in support of sectarian education on the grounds that it violates the First Amendment to the Constitution guaranteeing the separation of church and state. These are important exceptions to the general powers of the states, but they do not vitiate the argument that the primary responsibility for the distribution of federal funds in support of education should be left to the states. The alternative is federal control of education which few profess to want but which many advocate in one form or another as suits their respective points of view.

Much of the confusion relative to federal aid to education arises over provisions in several of the bills permitting or requiring the states to use a part of the funds for one or more so-called auxiliary services to assist pupils enrolled in both public and private schools. These include funds for the transportation of pupils, nonreligious textbooks, school lunches, and health services.

Some years ago, the Supreme Court unanimously decided that the use of public funds for the purchase of nonreligious textbooks for pupils in nonpublic schools was permissible. A few years ago, a similar decision was rendered with respect to the use of public funds to pay for the transportation of pupils to private schools as well as to public schools. It is well known that during the recent war, and since, many millions of dollars of federal money have been appropriated for the school-lunch

program in both public and private schools. No one doubts but that health services should be equally available to both public and nonpublic schools.

Hence the solution of this baffling problem with respect to federal aid to education is clearly not so complicated as first it appears to be. The Congress can and, in my opinion, should make funds available to assist pupils, whether enrolled in public or private schools, in the matter of school lunches, transportation, nonreligious textbooks, and health services.

On the other hand, it is inexcusable that the Congress should further delay making funds available in support of education to the states to be used as they see fit except insofar as limited by provisions of the United States Constitution.

The bill to provide a National Science Foundation which passed the Senate last year has again been approved by the Senate of the 81st Congress. Hearings have been completed before the House committee and there is a good chance that the bill will be passed. It raises a fundamental question regarding scholarships and fellowships to which I want to refer later.

Several bills have been introduced to provide federal aid to education in the health fields. A number of them provide scholarships for students; others only loans. A very important bill relative to the fields of medicine, dentistry, nursing, public health, and sanitary engineering, provides considerable sums both for the construction of physical facilities and for operational expenses. The provisions of the bill are so worded as to encourage institutions to expand their enrollment. It provides in medicine, for example, a payment to the institution of \$300 a year for each student enrolled up to the average enrollment for the past three years, and \$1,700 a year for each student in excess of this average. Such federal assistance, including construction of physical facilities, would be given to institutions in these fields regardless of the type of control. The bill also includes provision for scholarships and fellowships. The general principles of this bill were endorsed by the Committee on Relationships.

Two bills have been introduced to authorize the establishment of a program of extension education for labor. In both bills the administration would be allocated to the Department of Labor with the close cooperation of organized labor in the United States. One bill would utilize existing educational agencies and would parallel the agricultural extension program now developed by the Department of Agriculture. The other stipulates that 50 percent of the total appropriation shall be used for the development of educational programs operated directly by the federal agency and by the federally supported regional commissions authorized by the bill. The balance of the funds may be used to develop cooperative extension courses with educational institutions and organizations but only if such funds are matched within the state.

There is a basic issue in both of the proposed bills. Both, and especially the second, vest the authority for the development of the program and the determination of courses and curriculums in the hands of organized labor and the Department of Labor. Once more, as in all other matters relating to education, this authority should rest with the respective states.

As you know the Post Office Department has proposed a very substantial increase in postal rates. If the bill as drafted is enacted, the cost of postage to colleges and universities will be increased by approximately 4 million dollars during the first year and 8 million dollars annually thereafter. At the request of the House and Senate committees considering this legislation, testimony was presented by a member of the Council's staff urging the continuance of the special flat rate to religious, educational, and charitable institutions.

Legislation has been introduced which would provide a grant-in-aid of \$100,000,000 and \$200,000,000 in a revolving loan fund to assist all colleges and universities in construction of permanent housing for students and faculty. A bill has also been introduced which is limited only to loans but establishes the revolving fund at \$300,000,000. A representative of the Committee on Relationships testified in favor of the former

of these two bills before the Senate Banking and Currency Committee. The grant-in-aid provision is especially important since much of the temporary housing is now rapidly becoming detrimental to the health of students and the cost of maintenance is increasing, while at the same time building costs have spiraled to the extent that it is now difficult to make dormitory facilities self-liquidating.

One of the very important recommendations of the President's Commission on Higher Education which has had wide support is the provision for federal scholarships and fellowships. It was perhaps unfortunate that the President included in his budget for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1950, a request for \$1,000,000 to make a further study of the need for and nature of such a program, and to determine the needs of schools and colleges for physical facilities. This recommendation has proved a delaying factor since it was not until late April that the budget request was refused and the Office of Education was requested to submit a proposed bill to provide a federal program of fellowships and scholarships.

In the meantime, however, the Council had not been inactive. A series of questions involving basic principles with respect to such a program was published in the bulletin *Higher Education and National Affairs*, with the request that institutions express their judgment on these issues. In the light of the replies, the Committee on Relationships devoted considerable time in several of its meetings to the drafting of basic principles which should be incorporated in such a bill. These principles have been transmitted to appropriate agencies of government and will be further discussed at a meeting of the Committee on Relationships on May 16. It is hoped that a bill, prepared in cooperation with the governmental agencies, will be introduced into this session of the Congress. The purpose in introducing it now is to provide a basis for discussion in the hope that the second session of this Congress will take definitive action.

As I have intimated in describing other legislation, such an over-all program of scholarships and fellowships is to be pre-

ferred to the specific programs in restricted areas embodied in the National Science Foundation Bill, and those in the health fields. It is frankly recognized that every step toward the establishment of special scholarships makes the enactment of a comprehensive program all the more difficult. Furthermore, scholarships in special fields tend to direct enrollment of students into these areas. The time has come when legislation of a comprehensive character should supplant that restricted to special areas.

This review of a number of the contacts of the Council with the various governmental agencies demonstrates the continuous importance of the Council in providing a voice for—in fact in being a voice of—the many institutions and organizations in education in their representations to the agencies of the federal government. It was this need that brought the Council into being and it continues to be one of its very important functions.

To interpret the actions of governmental agencies that affect our colleges and universities, the Council has published 13 issues of the bulletin *Higher Education and National Affairs* and issued one emergency supplement during this last year.

COMMITTEE ON RELATIONSHIPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION TO THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

As I suggested in my annual report of a year ago, those who believed that relationships between higher education and the federal government would diminish as the emergency measures of the war and the postwar period were concluded, failed to recognize certain basic trends that were emerging. One is that the federal government now collects approximately 85 percent of all revenues received from all tax sources. This growing utilization of its priority claim on public funds entails also an increasing acceptance by the federal government of its responsibility for the advancement of the public welfare, including education. A second trend is the expanding program of national defense with an appropriation for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1949, of approximately \$16,000,000,000. Such a program

must affect all aspects of American life and directly affects our colleges and universities. The third trend is the constantly broader definition being given to the role of the federal government in carrying out its constitutional authority to promote the general welfare.

One may be critical of any one or all three of these trends but one cannot ignore them. In order to appraise their specific application in terms of the activities of governmental agencies and through proposed legislation, the Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government, Raymond Walters, chairman, has held eight meetings during the year; its subcommittee on the Extension of Social Security Benefits and the Committee on Taxation, each held two meetings. In addition to these more formal contacts, scarcely a day goes by when members of the Council's staff are not in conversation, either by telephone or in person, with representatives of various governmental agencies.

Veterans' Education

Three major problems have been of special concern to the colleges and universities during the past year. One was the decision of the Veterans Administration to demand that all publicly controlled institutions which had been paid for the education of veterans on the basis of nonresident fees be required to submit cost data. The Committee on Relationships has taken the position that no public institution using nonresident fees as a basis of payment should be required to submit cost data unless there is presumptive evidence that nonresident fees are substantially in excess of the cost of teaching personnel and essential supplies or unless the institution has increased its nonresident fees since the date of the Administrator's decision that such fees are the equivalent of the approximate cost of teaching personnel and essential supplies. If fees in such institutions have not been raised, there appears no justification for challenging such basis of payment at this time. I might add, parenthetically, that this proposed change was all the more disturbing because it was initiated during the academic year and after

the institutions had made their own commitments on the basis of prior payments by the VA.

A second matter, also related to payment for veterans' education to public institutions, is the mandatory deduction of other payments by the federal government from the amount to be paid by the VA. This deduction applies to payments under long-standing legislation including the Morrill Act, the Morrill-Nelson Act, and others. The mandatory deduction was included in a directive issued some two years ago. It stemmed from the established policy of government in prohibiting payments from more than one government agency when such payment is presumed to be "for the same purpose." It is the considered judgment of the Committee on Relationships that payment for veterans' education and payments under these long-standing grants are not for the same purpose. The latter grants are given with only limited restrictions as to the purpose for which they may be used. The VA payments are exclusively for the cost of teaching personnel and essential supplies. Consequently the committee has recommended to the VA that such deductions should not be required. This would not be true of funds for vocational education below college level under the Smith-Hughes Act, for example, since in this instance it is required that the grant be used for the payment of teachers' salaries. In discussions of whether institutions that had not deducted federal payments should now be required to reimburse the federal government for the amount of such payments, the committee took the position that, as a matter of equity, such refunds should not be required. The decision on this matter is still pending with the VA.

A third problem grew out of the appropriation act which included the statement that no part of such funds should be used for payment for courses which the veteran took primarily for avocational or recreational purposes. In the application of this legislation to colleges and universities, the VA concurred in the committee's recommendations that, when such courses were elected and accepted for degree requirements, it would be as-

sumed that such courses would not fall within the meaning of the act. However, in the case of single courses in specified fields such as flight training, music, and a few others, the institution is required to certify that such a course is vocational for the individual veteran. It was the purpose of the legislation to give authorization for the restriction of the vast variety of courses developed especially by proprietary schools; it was not aimed to limit the selection of veterans in bona fide courses of education and training.

A new problem is now developing. This problem is the phraseology of a projected regulation pertaining to the termination of the period during which a veteran may enter upon his training and education. As will be recalled, the GI Bill stated that the veteran must have entered upon training within four years from the date of his first discharge or the termination of the war, whichever is later. The official date for the termination of the war was July 25, 1947; thus all veterans discharged prior to this date must begin their training prior to July 25, 1951. At first glance this problem appears very simple; namely that a veteran who has not enrolled in education or training prior to this date forfeits his educational benefits under the GI Bill. But there is the question as to the meaning of the phrase "entered into education and training." Is a veteran's declaration of intent through taking out and procuring his Certificate of Eligibility and Entitlement a legal obligation upon the government to provide such training and education? There is the further problem involving veteran students who have entered upon their training but have discontinued prior to using their full-time entitlement.

The following figures indicate the importance of this problem. On May 1 of this year more than 9,500,000 veterans had applied for and received their Certificates of Eligibility and Entitlement. This is more than 60 percent of all veterans of World War II. During the first four months of this year veterans are still continuing to apply for their certificates at a rate of more than 4,000 per day. Of this 9,500,000 a little

more than 6,000,000 veterans had at one time or another entered training under Public Law 346. Almost 2,500,000 are now in training and less than 200,000 have completed their time entitlement. This leaves a backlog of 3,500,000 veterans who have taken out their certificates but have not entered into training and another 3,500,000 who have entered training but discontinued while still entitled to further education, or a total of 7,000,000 veterans who will be affected by the wording of this regulation. I think I should add that the Committee on Relationships has recommended that the wording should be such that, on the one hand, it will prevent any possible abuse of educational benefits and will carry out the intent of the Congress in setting this terminal date; and, on the other, it should not bar a veteran from continuing his interrupted education or from taking up the option inherent in his having been issued a Certificate of Entitlement if his interruption or his inability actually to enroll has been for good and sufficient reasons.

I should like again to stress the fine cooperative relations that have characterized another year of working with the VA. Representatives of the VA have met with the Committee on Relationships at almost every one of its meetings, and a member of the Council staff has at times met with the VA Advisory Committee in its own sessions. It is another illustration of the role of the Council in providing a voice to speak for the institutions and organizations in education in their relation with the federal government.

Selective Service

For nearly six months after the Selective Service Act was passed there was considerable uncertainty as to which government agency would assume responsibility for the preparation of regulations to carry out the deferment principle embodied in the act. Several conferences were held with representatives of the National Security Resources Board, Selective Service, and the White House. By late fall, it was apparent that Selective Service would have primary responsibility for the drawing up of appropriate regulations subject to review by the National

Security Resources Board and the President. By December, 1948, Selective Service had appointed six advisory committees, one each in the fields of: healing arts, physical sciences, agricultural and biological sciences, engineering sciences, humanities, and social sciences.

These committees held several extended meetings in joint session under the chairmanship of Dr. M. H. Trytten and have prepared regulations which will carry out the full spirit and intent of the act. However, on November 30, 1948, the armed services, owing to the fact that their quotas were filled, ceased to induct men under the provisions of the Selective Service Act. Hence the directive has not been released since it seems inappropriate to release it during the time when no inductions are being made under Selective Service. It seems clear that if Selective Service reactivates its induction program, the regulation for deferment will be released simultaneously.

Prior to the deliberations of the advisory committees of Selective Service, the Committee on Relationships drew up a proposed plan and submitted it to the committees for their consideration. This plan entails giving a national competitive examination either during the freshman or sophomore year in college and prior to the time when the student would be subject to induction. On the basis of some estimate of over-all nonmilitary needs, a cut-off score would be set. A student receiving a score above the prescribed but flexible minimum and who has maintained at least average standing in the institution in which he is enrolled would be eligible for deferment until the completion of his education. Such deferment would be on the basis of ability rather than the subject-matter field for which the student was preparing. Upon the termination of his education his deferment would be continued for a further period of three months to give him an opportunity for employment in a civilian occupation essential to the national interest.

A number of persons have felt that the proposed plan of deferment is undemocratic in that it is limited to those who are able to attend institutions of higher education. A proposal to have such individuals inducted and specifically assigned to col-

leges and universities for education seems to many such persons to be a wiser alternative. However, it should be pointed out that this proposal was advocated during the war, and that the military refused to accept responsibility for such assignment other than for training directly related to military need.

The following motions on this subject were passed at the conference of the representatives of the constituent member organizations of the Council held in Washington on January 28-29, 1949:

Resolved, That the American Council on Education seek to have the Selective Service System issue a directive which would authorize local boards to accept, for purposes of postponement of induction, the certification of the institution in which the student is enrolled: (1) that he is a full-time student; and (2) that he is making satisfactory progress.

That the representatives of the constituent members of the Council favor a plan of selective deferment for students.

ROTC

During the year there has been considerable discussion of the further expansion of ROTC along lines embodied in the Holloway Plan now used by the Navy. As yet no substantial progress has been made though it is possible that legislation authorizing such a program may yet be introduced in this session of the Congress. One of the interesting developments is the expansion of the Reserve Officers' Program through which students not enrolled in ROTC may volunteer as Reserve officers, take part in summer training, and be given a Reserve commission upon graduation from college.

Assignment of Volunteers and Inductees

One of the great wastes of manpower during World War II was the frequent failure of the armed services to assign men to activities specifically utilizing their education and experience. The unpredictable character of the demands was largely responsible for this failure; but a further cause was the fact that not until almost the end of the war was any comprehensive and effective plan for the selective assignment of military personnel

developed. The Department of the Army has for more than a year been working on the development of a plan which should prevent the repetition of this waste of manpower. This plan has now been completed, and the Committee on Relationships has requested the cooperation of colleges and universities in submitting the credentials and other data to the Department of the Army for advanced or former students who have volunteered or been inducted.

Roster of Specialized Manpower

What clearly we need both in peace and in war is an effective over-all setup which will plan for the utilization of manpower in all times of national emergency. A year ago at the annual meeting of the Council the following resolution setting out such a plan was unanimously adopted.

Resolved, By the American Council on Education, in annual meeting assembled, that funds should be made available by the federal government to make possible the collection of facts basic to effective manpower planning for the welfare of all America including organized American education. Such collection of facts should be made by the National Security Resources Board or other existing federal agency. The facts to be collected should include: (1) An over-all listing of individuals comprising America's scientific and specialized personnel including all faculty members in institutions of higher education. (2) A continuing census of students by special fields of work in all American institutions of higher education. (3) A continuing national survey of potential needs for specially trained personnel. (4) The development of a complete collection of technically accurate job analyses, both civilian and military, appropriate for normal times and for various periods of emergency. (5) A continuing survey of existing specialized educational facilities to meet regular and emergency training needs. (6) A continuing survey of available facilities for scientific research and development in educational institutions. (7) The formulation of programs of blueprints for the effective over-all use of all America's educational resources in any phase of future national emergency.

Some progress has been made toward carrying out this recommendation. Conversations have been held with representatives of the National Security Resources Board; the four educational councils—the National Research Council, American

Council of Learned Societies, Social Science Research Council, American Council on Education—have frequently discussed the need for a national study of the supply and demand for, and a roster of, high-level talent in scholarly and professional fields.

The National Research Council has developed a roster in a portion of the physical science area; the Committee on Human Resources of the Research and Development Board, to which a member of the staff of the American Council on Education is a consultant, has appraised the problem at some length. Unfortunately as yet no comprehensive program to carry out the full intent of the recommendation has been developed.

IV. INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES

During the past year, members of the Council staff have spent a substantial amount of time in the field of international education. At the request of the Department of State, I served as the chairman of the U.S. delegation to the international Preparatory Conference of Representatives of Universities held at Utrecht in August. Dr. Francis J. Brown was on leave of absence from the Council from April 1, 1948, to October 1, 1948, to organize and plan this conference. In November and December, 1948, I participated as a member of the U.S. delegation in the Third International Conference of UNESCO in Beirut, Lebanon. At other times, in the course of the year, I have devoted a substantial amount of time to various activities as a member of the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO and a number of its committees. These and earlier experiences have given me some opportunity to observe and evaluate a number of the major efforts now under way to lay the foundations of permanent peace through better international understanding.

Utrecht Conference

The international university conference at Utrecht, about which I wish to speak first, grew out of a resolution adopted by the UNESCO conference at Mexico City in the autumn of 1947,

The Utrecht conference was attended by 150 representatives of 34 countries. Dr. Brown, with the aid of members of the UNESCO staff, in Paris, provided for every contingency that might arise and the hospitality of the Dutch was all that any one could possibly wish for. Good organization and fine hospitality are the basic ingredients of any international conference.

The members of the U.S. delegation to the conference were as follows:

Jaime Benitez, chancellor of the University of Puerto Rico

Laurence Duggan, the late president of the Institute of International Education

Martha B. Lucas, president of Sweet Briar College

T. R. McConnell, dean of the College of Arts and Science, University of Minnesota

Edward B. Rooney, S.J., executive director, Jesuit Educational Association

William F. Russell, dean of Teachers College, Columbia University

Marten ten Hoor, dean of the College of Arts and Science, University of Alabama

Howard E. Wilson, assistant director of the Division of Intercourse and Education of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace

George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, chairman.

President George D. Stoddard of the University of Illinois, a member of the Executive Board of UNESCO, gave a very stimulating address. The U.S. Counselor on UNESCO Affairs, Mr. Kenneth E. Holland, was also present for several days, as was Mr. Fritz Karsen, Chief of Higher Education of OMGUS in Germany.

Five major topics were considered seriatim in the conference as a whole and later in separate sections, namely

Section I. The Changing Role of the University

Section II. Academic Standards

Section III. Financing and Providing Basic Services for Higher Education

Section IV. University Education and International Understanding

Section V. Means of Continuing International Cooperation among the Universities

Inasmuch as I have summarized the proceedings of the conference in the October 1948 issue of *THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD*, I shall not attempt to do so again at this time. I wish merely to say that the central theme of the conference was naturally "The Role of the University in Modern Life," including international affairs. Opinion ranged from the familiar conception of the education of the elite by the elite to the education of the whole man in the largest possible numbers. Judging by the statement from the representatives of the several countries, I should say that the latter conception was most frequently expressed. Certainly the demand for greater facilities in higher education to meet insistent individual and social needs was all but universal.

Thus the members of the conference who may have had some doubts at the beginning at once found that, notwithstanding differences in economic conditions and cultural background, they had many problems in common concerning which they could profitably exchange experience. To meet the cry for more facilities in higher education, it is evident that in most countries chief dependence must be placed on grants of money from the public treasury. As the members of the conference quickly recognized, there is in this situation the danger of political and bureaucratic influence creeping in to deaden independence of thought and action.

Equally there is, of course, the tendency for any social institution, universities included, to fall back on traditional modes of thought and procedures and so fail to recognize emerging social and individual needs. Nowhere has this danger been better expressed than by Adam Smith, 173 years ago, in his monumental work, *The Wealth of Nations*:

The improvements which in modern times have been made in several branches of philosophy have not, the greater part of them, been made in universities, though some no doubt have. The great part of universities have not been very forward to adopt those improvements after they were made; and several of those learned societies have chosen to remain for a long time the sanctuaries in which exploded systems and obsolete preju-

dices found shelter and protection, after they had been hunted out in every corner of the world. In general, the richest and best endowed universities have been slowest in adopting these improvements, and the most averse to permit any considerable changes in the established plan of education. Those improvements were more easily introduced into some of the poorer universities, in which the teachers, depending upon their reputation for the greater part of their subsistence, were obliged to pay more attention to the current opinions of the world.

If universities and colleges run the danger of failing to recognize and provide for emerging social needs within the nation, how much greater is the likelihood that they will fail to do the same thing on the international level! Hence an important part of the Utrecht conference was devoted to the role of the university in developing international understanding. To any one familiar with the history of universities, it comes as something of a shock to ponder the international character of universities in decades and even centuries gone by and then to realize how nationalistic and party-dominated they have become in such a large portion of the world today. For it is to be remembered that universities have always existed presumably to discover, to preserve, and to teach universal truth. To facilitate this zeal for truth, it was common practice for students and professors to migrate rather freely from one university to another. Centuries later, when the nationalistic spirit first struck such nations as Germany, the universities remained comparatively free from interference by the state, and thousands of students from the more democratic countries, including the United States, flocked to their laboratories, libraries, and lecture halls.

Now much, though certainly not all, has changed. No institution behind the Iron Curtain can any longer properly be regarded as a university. In Italy and Western Germany the universities, both faculty and buildings, are in many instances only the shells of their former glory. In other countries, the universities have been sadly weakened by the depressing economic effects of the war and so have become indifferent to a

wider role in international affairs. Even in the United States which, among the important nations of the world, has experienced the least economic shock, the conception of international responsibilities held by institutions of higher education still shows deeply the blighting effects of twenty years of isolationism. And so at Utrecht it was quite natural that the role of the university in promoting international understanding should have become a dominant theme. It was eloquently expressed by Paulo de Berrêdo Carneiro, the Permanent Delegate of Brazil to UNESCO, as follows:

The world has been drawn closer together, materially, by modern means of transport and communications; but it is more than ever divided spiritually by cultural and ideological antagonisms. . . . Only a great intellectual and moral force, entirely free and independent of temporal powers, could succeed in re-establishing order and in creating that "society of minds" without which no human community can long exist. If the university fails to rise to the level of this task, and to accept it as a duty inherited from its past, the material forces will take possession of the destinies of mankind and will lead civilization from one catastrophe to another, ultimating in complete ruin.

Among other purposes, the conference at Utrecht was called to consider the need for establishing an international organization of universities. With a heightened sense of the international responsibilities of universities resulting from the discussions of the ways and means in which universities might cooperate with one another in meeting these responsibilities and for general mutual benefit, the delegates unanimously went on record as favoring the establishment of such an organization. But they left for a future—presumably an even larger—conference, to be called perhaps in 1950, the matter of actually setting up such an organization following further discussion at home, which is one of the reasons why I am bringing it to your attention at this time. The Council will also ask its member organizations to consider the matter.

Among the questions which need consideration are the following: Is membership in the new organization to be by in-

stitutions? If so, what institutions in the several countries are to be eligible for membership? What dues for the support of the organization should they pay? In international meetings and conferences of the organization, is voting to be by institutions or by countries? If the latter, as seems most likely, how are the member institutions in a country to be organized for the selection of delegates and to perform other necessary business? These are only a few of the problems which need discussion and agreement.

In the meantime, an interim committee chosen at Utrecht was empowered to call the next conference and, with financial support from the central office of UNESCO, to set up a universities bureau to serve as a central clearinghouse of information.

Thus there has been gotten under way the possibility of setting up an international voluntary organization in higher education which should contribute powerfully to the purposes and program of UNESCO and even lend the weight of its opinion and advice to other specialized international organizations and to the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations. I trust that we here in the United States may not falter in our support of so worthy a cause.

UNESCO grew out of the deep feeling that "since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be built." In days gone by wars began in the minds of only a few men. In backward and totalitarian countries, this situation still obtains. But as the world becomes more literate and communication more easy, if wars are begun it must be in the minds of many men. Equally, as the nations of the world progress toward democracy in form and in spirit, if there are to be defenses of peace, they must be built in the minds of *many* men. Peace is therefore something to be understood and worked for not only by diplomats and professors but also by miners and farmers, schoolteachers and housewives, office workers and carpenters, engineers and doctors. In other words, democratic international government—which is the only kind of international government that we can possibly contemplate—

requires the same kind of popular intelligence and effort which we have long ago conceded to be necessary for the successful practice of democracy within the respective nations.

It goes without saying, of course, that the defenses of peace must be built in the minds of men in all nations, and not simply within any one nation or even any group of nations. It may be possible, as has recently been suggested, for peace to be maintained between democracies and totalitarian governments, but it will always be a precarious peace. I am more inclined to agree with Professor Harold J. Laski, of England, who several years ago observed that the world had grown so small that it was unlikely that democracies and totalitarian governments could live in peace side by side.

In the light of these principles and standards, which I have briefly enunciated, what is the chance for UNESCO to succeed in preserving world peace? I believe that we would all have to agree that within the next decade, and perhaps the next generation, it has very little chance to do so. During this fateful period in which you and I as individuals are so deeply concerned, we must depend on the intelligence, leadership, patience, and strength of the democratic nations to preserve the peace, and hope and pray that with the folly of two World Wars as horrible examples before them, irresponsible dictators wherever they may be will not dare again to plunge the world into another global conflict.

The era of UNESCO is, therefore, over the long future. It can never be the chief guarantor of peace in the world until all the powerful nations become democratic in form and in spirit. They, in turn, can never be democratic until education reaches and influences the great majority of the people within them. To assist in the attainment of this standard, UNESCO has a prodigious task ahead of it. It has bravely attacked the problem of illiteracy in Haiti and in certain other parts of the world, but the effort is as yet nowhere on a scale that does more than set an example of what is involved in the complicated process of setting up adequate facilities in fundamental education.

UNESCO cannot, of course, take over the responsibility of the several nations themselves with respect to fundamental education. Moreover it will have to work in close cooperation with other specialized agencies, notably the World Health Organization, but it must have a program of fundamental education with sufficient resources and vigor behind it to be felt around the world.

The UNESCO Conference at Beirut

The time has now come for UNESCO's program to be extended to Western Germany. The general conference of UNESCO at Beirut took a long step in this direction last December, when it authorized an appropriation in the budget for such cooperation. This action taken together with the impending three-power action in setting up a West German State, presumably under civilian rather than military control, goes a long way toward the readmittance of Western Germany into the family of nations.

This action comes at a time when by nearly universal testimony the re-education of the Germans along democratic lines is nowhere near complete. Very serious mistakes could easily be made. In the first place, our government has been niggardly in its support of an effective educational program in the U.S. zone as compared to the far more extensive programs in the French and British zones, not to mention the Russian zone. We should, therefore, be careful to leave in Germany at least a small corps of thoroughly competent educators in an advisory capacity, and particularly we should continue and enlarge the exchange program of students, professors, and administrators so recently begun. Furthermore, this program should not be compared for size with other programs of similar character now getting under way under the Smith-Mundt and other acts: there may be some tendency to do this when the German program goes under civil administration of the Department of State. It is a program of special, if not critical, importance. To weaken it at this time, as Dr. Alonzo G. Grace, the present

responsible U. S. educational officer in Germany has recently declared, might well have tragic consequences.

One other function of UNESCO, which from the beginning has been of critical importance to the war-devastated countries, is educational reconstruction. That program, which was slow in getting under way in the Paris office, has finally come through in a very commendable manner. Pamphlets containing trustworthy information as to needs at both the school and university levels have come from the press and have been widely disseminated. The results have been most gratifying. It is estimated that the magnificent sum of approximately \$214,000,000, primarily from private donations, has been made available to the war-devastated countries for educational reconstruction.

This large sum was raised in the United States alone. The National Education Association, itself, has collected a total of approximately \$350,000 in small sums from its members. Other organizations have also been active. All of them have been stimulated in no small degree by the splendid work of the Commission on International Educational Reconstruction, a cooperative effort of a number of educational organizations, which the Council was instrumental in setting up and securing financial support for.

In its very nature the project was temporary and could, therefore, be financed only temporarily. Hence CIER has now disbanded, and all efforts at further stimulation and coordination of effort in this country have necessarily been jointly assumed by the UNESCO staffs in Paris and in the United States. At the moment there is a certain amount of confusion with respect to this matter which I trust will be cleared up in the early future.

In the meantime, it was natural that at the Beirut conference questions should be raised as to whether the time was not near at hand when activities in the field of educational reconstruction, always regarded as a temporary necessity, should not be discontinued. Naturally this was opposed by representatives of the war-devastated countries who could easily show that educational reconstruction was only well begun and had not as yet become at all adequate. Furthermore only a few miles away from Beirut

could be seen the very distressing sight of thousands of Arabs who had fled from Palestine—the total has been estimated to be 700,000 to 800,000—and who were in great need of clothes, food, shelter, and educational facilities. Their plight was indeed so distressing that, first, the members of the U. S. delegation and, later, others made personal donations of clothes and money for their relief and upon returning to New York issued a special appeal for their relief.

As a result of the discussion of the problem as a whole, the Beirut conference requested a special investigation of the Arab refugee situation and went only so far as to advise the UNESCO staff to integrate the program of educational reconstruction into the other regular parts of UNESCO's program as rapidly as may be feasible. From this situation, it is easy to see that, notwithstanding the fact that educational reconstruction is not a part of the stated purposes in UNESCO's charter, it seems likely that the organization will be compelled to continue to supply educational relief whenever and wherever special and large-scale distressing situations arise.

Obviously, I have been able to mention briefly only a few of the major educational aspects of UNESCO's program. There are many other important ones in the fields of science and culture. The next question which should concern us is whether the several member nations are working effectively to carry on the program. For it must be realized that the UNESCO staff in Paris is primarily a service staff. It can only study, stimulate, and coordinate. The real work of UNESCO must be done within the respective nations themselves and, as I stated earlier, to be effective it must reach a large portion of the people through the various population groups.

Frankly, I have had the uncomfortable feeling that in most countries the National Commissions envisaged in the UNESCO constitution were slow in getting started, that they were often not widely representative and that they were not attempting to respond to more than a small portion of the UNESCO program. The progress of the National Commissions as reported at, and

since, the Beirut conference was, however, very heartening. UNESCO is on its way.

Our primary duty is to see whether we are doing our full part in this country. By now it is evident that the Congress may continue to be niggardly in its support of the UNESCO staff in the Department of State. There are simply not enough personnel there to facilitate the program of UNESCO in this country. Great portions of it must, therefore, be handed over to voluntary organizations to carry on as best they can with whatever resources they possess or can find. The science program, for example, has been given to the National Research Council, the project on tensions to the Social Science Research Council, and the study of textbooks and the program of international understanding in the universities to the American Council on Education. The American Council has already made notable contributions to the study of textbooks, but it is now faced with requests for further studies in this field to which I hope it can respond favorably.

Fortunately in the field of university and college education, we have received sufficient funds to hold what I believe will be a notable national conference at Estes Park, Colorado, during the latter part of June. The problem will be to secure an appreciation of the ever-widening program in international education now being carried on by the government and voluntary agencies on the basis of which to develop institution-wide programs, both instructional and extracurricular. It is now more clear than ever before that peace based on international understanding must become a recognized fundamental objective of the whole institution, both with respect to the preparation of specialized personnel for international service and the preparation of intelligent citizens. An important aspect of the conference will also be to explore the functions and organization of the proposed International Association of Universities. I trust that the conference may prove to be a powerful stimulus to awakening universities to their full responsibility in promoting international understanding as the basis of permanent peace and good will.

This brings me finally to a few observations with respect to

Point Four in President Truman's inaugural address. Dr. C. E. Beeby, head of the division of education of UNESCO in Paris, has been in this country during the past month conferring with the officials of the United Nations and the several specialized agencies to see what the role of UNESCO may be in the development of a widespread program to the various nations of the world to effectuate "the bold new program" suggested by President Truman.

Obviously no program of fundamental education in the undeveloped countries can be effective or permanent unless it is an integral part of a larger program to raise the whole standard of living. Any one who has had the good fortune to travel extensively in other parts of the world is at once impressed with the fact that, generally speaking, it is a backward agricultural economy which prevails almost everywhere. An integral part of it is often a landlord-tenant relationship which dominates the whole social setup. Forward-looking nationals who aspire to a better social life, noting how many pounds of coffee, tea, dates, and olives it takes to buy an American automobile, yearn to attain an industrial economy in one leap, not realizing the necessity of foreign technical assistance and capital and the complications which may result therefrom.

I have no question as to the necessity of foreign capital in the development of the countries, but its relative importance, especially in the beginning, can easily be overemphasized. For example, modern machinery has been poured into Greece and allowed to go to waste because people did not know how to use it. Nourishing, and much-needed, imported canned food suffered the same fate, for the same reason. What has been labeled technical know-how to improve production and consumption standards in an agricultural economy is, therefore, the primary necessity in any such country before it is ready for the more complicated processes of industrial life. I hope, therefore, that UNESCO will keep this standard in mind in whatever responsibilities it may assume in carrying out Point Four in President Truman's program. It is indeed a very proper expansion of its function of fundamental education.

In the course of carrying out this program, all kinds of complications within the respective countries can arise. Governments in some countries change frequently. Some are certainly less democratic than others. While it is evident that neither UNESCO nor any other international agency can interfere in the domestic affairs of the country benefited under this program, certain principles may very well be set up, such as increasing the standard of living of all the people and responsible participation in the development of the program, in making grants to the respective countries. I mention this not merely to establish the unselfishness of the benefactor-nations but in order to demonstrate to the nationals of the respective countries that the democracies of the world, in contrast with other political systems, have something very tangible to offer them. You may be very sure that this observation has real meaning over the world.

Finally, it is clear, of course, that the most of the money for this program will have to come from the United States. We have had a limited but invaluable experience in the work of the Institute of Inter-American Affairs.

That experience has been bilateral, that is, through agreements between the United States and particular Latin-American countries. The arrangements are relatively simple and easily executed. I have no doubt this program should be continued and extended but I am equally sure that the major program of supplying technical aid to the undeveloped countries of the world, notwithstanding the complicated process which is naturally involved, should be done multilaterally—that is, through the various international agencies, including UNESCO. We may have a difficult task selling this idea to the Congress.

To this principle, I would make one important exception. It so happens that I have seen personally the splendid work which is being done by a number of the American schools and colleges located in the several Latin-American and Middle East countries. Ward College in Buenos Aires, the American School in Quito, the American University of Beirut, Robert College at Istanbul, and the Farm School in Greece—to choose only a few examples from a long list—are veritable lighthouses of learning

and hope. They are being conducted as educational institutions and not as an extension of the diplomatic arm of the United States government. They train thousands of men and women for useful service to their respective countries and they stand as inspiring examples of American education. No word of criticism have I ever heard of their work—only sincere praise. It seems to me that the United States government may well be much more generous in the support of American schools and colleges abroad than it has so far been. It could be made a very important part of the implementation of Point Four in President Truman's inaugural address.

SPECIAL COUNCIL PROJECTS

I shall now describe a number of particular projects in the field of international education in which the Council has been interested. Together they make up a contribution in which I believe the membership of the Council can take considerable pride.

Since 1946, when it was launched as a result of a series of conferences called by the American Council on Education, the Commission for International Educational Reconstruction, Harold E. Snyder, director, has been the focal point of American voluntary efforts on behalf of war-devastated countries, cooperating closely with UNESCO, the authorities of the occupied countries, and the International Refugee Organization. During the past year CIER has operated on a greatly reduced scale in view of the expiration of its grant from the Carnegie Corporation. To permit its continuation even on a reduced scale for an additional year, fourteen national voluntary agencies made cash contributions.

Despite a reduction in staff, CIER managed to continue its publications program, the handling of inquiries, and the making of its annual survey of expenditures for educational reconstruction. It continued to be designated by the National Commission for UNESCO as the official panel to carry out UNESCO's reconstruction program.

The annual survey revealed that during 1948 contributions

for educational reconstruction by American voluntary agencies totaled more than \$64,000,000, making for the three-year period of CIER's existence a grand total of \$214,000,000. This total represents the work of more than 400 organizations, and of millions of individuals in all walks of life. In addition, it is estimated that through government programs, such as military government in the occupied countries, Economic Cooperation Administration and other rehabilitation projects, and United States contributions to reconstruction activities of the United Nations and UNESCO, more than one hundred million dollars of additional aid for educational, scientific, and cultural reconstruction of devastated countries and displaced persons has been provided from this country.

The effect of such aid abroad is difficult to estimate. Certain major improvements in conditions abroad, at least partially attributable to American voluntary efforts, can be noted. In general, the western European countries have recovered sufficiently so that they no longer request basic educational supplies and materials. These countries still stress continuation of services already well under way, such as fellowships and study grants, and desire the development of long-term exchanges and cultural-relations programs.

Possibly more important even than these immediate gains in educational opportunity is the growth of good will and understanding on the part of the participants. Through sending materials and educational missions, organizing work camps and seminars, offering scholarships and books, affiliating school with school and organization with organization, links of friendly cooperation have been forged which will remain for years to come. By finding a practical means of giving concrete effect to UNESCO's broad purposes, CIER has provided an outlet for those eager to play a direct part in building a lasting peace.

In view of changes in the nature of the UNESCO reconstruction program, the strengthening of the U.S. National Commission for UNESCO, and the feeling that CIER has accomplished its essential purpose, it was decided that CIER should discontinue its separate existence this summer with the completion of its

second Cooperative Project in International Education. This project will involve bringing to the United States approximately forty leading educators from devastated countries for a program of study and observation of American educational institutions. The group will come together in June at Syracuse University for an international seminar of which Dean Harry S. Ganders will be director. A majority of these foreign educators have been brought to this country under the auspices of the American Junior Red Cross and the National Education Association.

Foreign Students in American Institutions

During the academic year which is just closing more than 25,000 foreign students have been enrolled in colleges and universities in the United States. In addition to registered students, many hundreds of other persons from foreign countries have come to the United States to study specific problems of education and to see the way these problems are being met through our schools and colleges. These programs, under the Fulbright Act, the Smith-Mundt Act, and those developed by the Department of the Army, will still further increase the number of foreign students who will come to the United States during this next year. At this point I may say that the Council has been active in procuring certain modifications of regulations of the Immigration and Naturalization Service as they affect foreign students, and is seeking also to incorporate changes in the Immigration Act as a basis for still further liberalization of the requirements applicable to bona fide foreign students.

One subject not dealt with elsewhere in this report, which stimulated much interest at the conference of the representatives of the Council's constituent member organizations in January 1949, had to do with the increasing difficulties of foreign students in this country due in part to the cutting-off of financial support from their home countries, as in the case of China, and the consequent greater burden thrust on our own colleges and universities to find a means of taking care of them. This burden, as is well known in our colleges and universities, is accentuated unnecessarily by our severe legal limitations on foreign students

earning any substantial portion of their expenses while attending college in this country.

The resolutions passed by the conference with respect to foreign students were as follows:

Resolved, That the American Council on Education be urged to present to colleges and universities and other educational agencies the imperative need for continued assistance to foreign and displaced students who are eligible and worthy of opportunities for study in the United States; and,

That the Council be authorized to present testimony regarding the need for both emergency and comprehensive long-term assistance from the appropriate federal agencies to supplement the substantial contributions of colleges and universities and private agencies to foreign students.

COMMISSION ON THE OCCUPIED AREAS

In its report in the summer of 1946 the State Department's Educational Mission to the American zone in Germany strongly recommended the setting-up of facilities through voluntary agencies in the United States to supplement the educational program under the direction of our military government in Germany. It did not prove feasible to do this at once, although the Council and many other educational organizations gave a great deal of informal assistance.

Finally in February 1948, the Council, at the request of Herman B. Wells, then serving as Adviser on Cultural Affairs to General L. D. Clay, called a conference of representatives of educational organizations and members of the staff of the Department of the Army and the Department of State to consider ways and means of setting up a "state-side" committee to cooperate with the government in its program of education and cultural affairs in Germany. It was felt that this more direct contact with educational organizations in the United States would be mutually beneficial to the staff in Germany, to the federal agencies in Washington, and to educational people in this country.

As a result of these efforts there followed, nearly a year ago, the formation of the Advisory Committee on Cultural and Educational Relations with the Occupied Countries (now known

as the Commission on the Occupied Areas) under a grant of \$25,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation. The broad purpose of this commission is to develop and strengthen sound approaches to cultural and educational affairs in the occupied countries, stressing particularly the establishment of mutual relations between institutions and organizations in the United States and those in occupied countries. It is concerned primarily with the promotion of such activities in the educational and cultural fields as will encourage the development of democracy in these countries.

The Commission's functions include: (1) consultation with U.S. government departments and agencies, concerning educational and related activities and policies in the occupied countries; (2) negotiations with independent organizations for services required to implement educational programs; (3) recommending qualified American personnel for overseas service; (4) stimulation and coordination of voluntary reconstruction aid to supplement government funds; (5) assistance in arrangements for foreign personnel coming to the United States; (6) establishment of technical panels to advise military government in special fields as needed; (7) preparation of reports and recommendations to governmental and nongovernmental agencies directly concerned.

The chairman of the commission is President Herman B. Wells of Indiana University, who has since returned from Germany. The director is Harold E. Snyder, formerly director of CIER.

During the first nine months of activity, the commission has developed close cooperative relations with U.S. government agencies concerned and also with the major American voluntary agencies. In view of the small staff and budget, the commission carries on its activities largely through a series of panels specifically organized for the purpose by leading coordinating bodies in the major fields of interest. Panels already established include: *Public Education* (sponsored by the National Education Association); *Teacher Education* (Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education); *Higher Education* (American Council on

Education); *Natural Sciences* (National Research Council); *Social Science Teaching and Research* (Social Science Research Council); *Humanities* (American Council of Learned Societies); *Governmental Affairs* (Civil Administration Division, OMGUS); *Youth Activities* (National Social Welfare Assembly); *Religious Affairs* (National Conference of Christians and Jews); *Rural Affairs* (International Federation of Agricultural Producers); *Music* (Civil Affairs Division, Department of the Army, New York Field Office); *Theater* (Civil Affairs Division, Department of the Army, New York Field Office); *Labor Education* (American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations); *Legal Affairs* (sponsorship to be determined). Additional panels will be organized as needed.

A second grant of \$50,000 from the Rockefeller Foundation will permit the commission to carry on until the summer of 1950. In addition, several of the panels have also received foundation support.

Among the commission's major current activities is the arrangement of study visits on the part of distinguished German and Austrian educators, several of whom are attending this annual meeting of the Council.

To date the commission has devoted almost all of its efforts to the situation in Germany. Later it is hoped that considerable attention may also be devoted to Japan.

CANADA-UNITED STATES COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

The Canada-United States Committee on Education has now completed five years of interesting and constructive work. No meeting of the full committee was held during the year, but the executive committee has held two meetings—one in Toronto on June 6, 1948, and a second in New York on January 17 and 18, 1949. Plans are being made for a meeting of the full committee in the city of Quebec during the fall of 1949.

During the past year the committee sponsored the publication of a booklet entitled *The Growth of Peaceful Settlement between Canada and the United States*,^a prepared by Professor

^aPublished by the Ryerson Press, Toronto.

George W. Brown of the department of history of the University of Toronto. Dr. Brown makes the following concluding observation in his study:

Canada and the United States can take a just pride in the history of their relations during the past one hundred and fifty years. The story is not without its dark spots, but it is a story worth knowing, and it represents a very great contribution to peace and international understanding.

A report on "Current Practices in Canadian-American Interchanges of Personnel" was published in June 1948, as one of the issues of *Canadian Education*. The report was prepared by Mr. A. H. Goodman of the Graduate School of Education of Harvard University, and reprints of this article have been given wide circulation. A digest of the report has been prepared by J. W. Brouillette of Louisiana State University, and arrangements have been completed for its publication in an early issue of the *Peabody Journal of Education*. The report reveals that there have been scores of examples of cooperation between educational agencies of the two nations involving personnel exchanges. It is believed that this report will be of value to organizations concerned with the exchange of educational personnel and to those who are contemplating the promotion of similar exchanges.

In June of 1948 the committee authorized a comparative examination of geography textbooks used in the schools of both countries. This study will be similar to the committee's study of history textbooks. It will be conducted by Professor Edward G. Pleva, chairman of the department of geography of the University of Western Ontario, with the advice of a small committee of American and Canadian geographers. The purpose of the study is to examine what is taught in each country about the geography of the other country and to consider what is omitted that might be taught with advantage. It is anticipated that this study will stimulate authors and curriculum directors to review their present approach to the geography of the two nations.

As a result of a suggestion by the Canada-United States Committee on Education, the University of Michigan created a special committee to consider programs relating to Canada that might be provided in the 1949 summer session. This committee recommended that five such courses be provided. One of these courses will be a Canada-United States Workshop in which studies of the instruction in the schools of the two countries will be examined. Courses will also be offered in French-Canadian literature as well as in Canadian geography, history, and political science. In announcing the courses Professor Louis A. Hopkins, director of the summer session of the University of Michigan, said:

As the representative of a state whose early history was bound inextricably to that of Canada and whose friendly relations with its neighbor to the north and the east have continually been a cause for gratefulness, the University of Michigan through the summer session is sponsoring for 1949 a program of studies, supplementary lectures, and exhibits entitled "American-Canadian Relations." It is hoped that the program may unite students of both nations in the endeavor to acquire knowledge and thus understanding of their harmonious, though not wholly similar, civilizations.

It is anticipated that the university will continue to emphasize the study of Canadian culture, history, and government.

The executive committee has announced that it is planning for the preparation of American filmstrips for use in Canada and the United States.

In January of 1949 the committee suffered a severe loss in the death of Dr. Fletcher Peacock, the director of education for New Brunswick. Dr. Peacock was one of the original members of the committee and served as its co-chairman during the first four years. He was an invaluable member and should be credited with many of the early contributions of the committee.

The officers of the committee are: *co-chairmen*, Dean J. B. Edmonson of the University of Michigan, Professor Charles E. Phillips of the University of Toronto; *co-secretaries*, Professor Erling M. Hunt of Teachers College, Columbia University, and F. K. Stewart, executive secretary of the Canadian Education Association. The officers constitute the executive committee.

EDUCATION IN ARAB COUNTRIES OF THE NEAR EAST

This report is now in the printer's hands, and galleys are being received in the editorial department. It is turning out to be one of the most extensive monographs ever issued by the Council. It is estimated to make more than 600 pages, will have almost a hundred tables, many photographs and especially prepared charts. It is expected to come from the press in October, and will be a handsome book as well as the first comprehensive description of education as carried on in those interesting countries—Egypt, Iraq, Palestine, Lebanon, Syria, and Transjordan. The report was written by Professor Roderic D. Matthews of the University of Pennsylvania, director of the study, and Matta Akrawi, Director-General of Higher Education of Iraq. Emam Abdel Meguid of Cairo, Egypt, was the third member of the commission which personally visited 471 schools of all levels in a nine months' survey of the countries named.

Mr. Matthews has made arrangements with Dr. Amir Boktor of the American University of Cairo to translate the work into Arabic. The Arabic edition will probably be printed at Cairo late this year or early in 1950.

This study was undertaken at the request of and with the financial aid of the Department of State, which plans to make a wide distribution of the report to government officials and educators of the countries studied.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL PROGRAM IN LATIN AMERICA

The Council has continued to act as administrative agent for United States government agencies in carrying out the government's program of strengthening and developing American-type schools in the other Americas. This program started in 1943 under a contract with the Office of Inter-American Affairs. Since then it has been carried on under annual contracts with the Department of State. The school project is regarded as part of the cultural program of the Department of State in Latin America, and the Council is given broad powers in its administration. It operates under the Inter-American Schools Service

Committee, of which E. D. Grizzell is chairman, and a sub-committee, of which Henry Grattan Doyle is chairman. The latter committee passes on special grants-in-aid to schools. Since 1943 Roy Tasco Davis has been director of the Inter-American Schools Service.

On September 9, 1948, a contract was signed with the Department of State under which the Council received a grant of \$171,000 from the appropriation for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1948.

Since the inception of this program the American Council has received annual grants totaling \$992,825, covering the period from 1943 to 1948 inclusive.

In its operation the Inter-American Schools Service observes the following principles:

1. That North American sponsored schools in Latin America have been established to supplement rather than compete with the work and activities of national schools.
2. That the purpose of this Service is to cooperate with North American sponsored schools in their efforts to improve the educational programs offered to the communities they serve. It is not its purpose to act as an agency to promote the interests of the United States, except as its activities result incidentally in strengthening confidence in North American institutions generally and in promoting mutual international understanding and respect.
3. That this Service will be developed as a nongovernmental, voluntary agency of coordination and cooperation for schools in Latin America having related interests. It will make available to eligible schools technical and professional advice and assistance, without attempting to determine their policies.

The following grants-in-aid during the past year have been made to independent community schools for the purpose of assisting them financially in employing administrators and teachers from the United States:

BOLIVIA	American Institute, La Paz	\$10,000.00
	Anglo-American School, Oruro	6,000.00

COLOMBIA	Karl C. Parrish School, Barranquilla	5,000.00
	Colegio Nueva Granada, Bogotá.....	9,868.00
	Anglo-American School (Colegio Bolívar), Cali	3,000.00
	The Columbus School, Medellín.....	3,000.00
	The Lincoln School, San José.....	10,000.00
COSTA RICA	American School, Nueva Gerona	1,376.89
ECUADOR	American School, Guayaquil	7,500.00
	American School, Quito	10,000.00
GUATEMALA	American School, Guatemala City	11,000.00
HAITI	Union School, Port-au-Prince	2,000.00
HONDURAS	Inter-American School, Tegucigalpa	10,000.00
MEXICO	American Grammar and High School, Mexico City	5,000.00
	American School, Puebla	9,641.01
	American School, Managua	12,000.00
PERU	American School, Lima	5,000.00
SALVADOR	American School, San Salvador	12,000.00
VENEZUELA	American School, Caracas	5,000.00
Total		\$137,385.90

In addition to these grants to community schools, the Inter-American Schools Service provides technical and professional information for approximately 250 American-sponsored schools in Latin America operated by United States religious organizations and by United States commercial firms. Among the services provided are: the counseling of students who desire to enter schools and colleges in the United States; information and help relative to accreditation; and the recruiting of teachers and administrators. The Service also gives advice in connection with financial problems and has cooperated in local campaigns throughout Latin America to raise funds for building purposes. Recently modern school buildings were built or purchased in Mexico City, Monterrey, and Puebla, Mexico; Barranquilla, Colombia; Caracas, Venezuela; and Lima, Peru, representing an investment of approximately \$2,000,000.

A file of between 500 and 700 candidates for teaching and administrative positions is maintained. Applicants are carefully

screened and when vacancies occur the credentials of candidates who meet the requirements to fill these vacancies are made available to the schools. During the past year 35 teachers and administrators have been placed through the Inter-American Schools Service.

The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools appointed a special committee at the request of the Inter-American Schools Service to consider the accreditation of American-type schools in Latin America. Representatives of the Southern Association visited and inspected several schools in Latin America, and as a result six schools have been accredited, as follows: Lincoln School, San José, Costa Rica; the American School at Monterrey, Mexico; the Navy-sponsored school at Guantanamo, Cuba; American Grammar and High School, Buenos Aires, Argentina; American School Foundation, Tacubaya, Mexico; and the Lago Community School, Lago Camp, Aruba, Netherlands West Indies.

Other American-type schools in Latin America are applying for accreditation.

During the past year scores of letters have been received from United States diplomatic officers in Latin America and from citizens of the United States and nationals of several countries where these schools are located, relative to the service that they are offering their respective communities and their usefulness in the inter-American cultural program. The following excerpts from some of these communications give some idea of the usefulness of these schools:

The American Ambassador in one of the Central American countries concludes a report on the activities of the American-sponsored school there with the statement:

I should like to add that it is my sincere opinion that the cooperation which the United States Government is giving American schools is one of the most useful and vital phases of our entire program of cultural cooperation. Aid to such schools necessarily comes under the heading of a long-range program for the promotion of mutual understanding and there is nothing we are doing in this part of the world which is going to prove more fruitful over the years than this.

A United States citizen residing in Colombia, whose children are enrolled in one of these schools, makes the following comment:

I feel that the school is one of the most important forces now operating in Bogotá in the development of friendships between Colombia and the United States. My children have made firm friendships with their Colombian classmates. They play together and frequently visit one another's homes in addition to working together in the team-like spirit which is fostered by the school. Through this constant, day by day meeting of children of two nationalities, each absorbs more than he realizes of the other's culture and develops a deep fondness for and understanding of the other.

A Latin-American patron of one of the American-sponsored schools in Colombia writes as follows:

As a Colombian who has great faith in the cultural future of the American continent based upon friendship and understanding between its peoples, I selected the Columbus School for my son because I am convinced that under the influence of a common education our children will become better acquainted, and their friendship will be more spontaneous upon discovering that their human interests are the same, irrespective of their distinct nationalities. This conviction has been fully confirmed by the intelligent program carried out in the Columbus School.

DIRECTORY OF UNIVERSITIES OF THE WORLD OUTSIDE U.S.A.

The initiation and organization of this project were discussed in my annual report for 1948. Since that time the work has proceeded steadily on schedule, and in some respects with more success than had been anticipated. Though difficult and unsettled political situations in many parts of the world have continued, the responses to direct communications with foreign universities and other institutions of higher learning have been generous and painstaking. Comprehensive data regarding some seven hundred institutions in seventy countries are now in hand, and many items of information have been obtained concerning hundreds of other institutions.

The total of institutions named and identified in the forthcoming handbook will probably exceed two thousand. In two-

thirds of the instances the entry will be accompanied by at least some descriptive matter of recent date, supplying an assembly of facts and figures on higher education the world over, different in character from any collection of such data ever previously available in one place, and constituting a pioneer work of reference. The volume is scheduled to be off the press at the end of the current calendar year for publication in January 1950.

The Advisory Committee for the Foreign Universities Project, under the chairmanship of Henry Grattan Doyle, dean of Columbian College, George Washington University, has constituted a pool of varied knowledge and experience and has contributed invaluable counsel throughout the preparation of the handbook. The committee has met and deliberated with the director of the project three times—in June and October, 1948, and in March 1949. In addition to the general aims implicit in the project, the committee has had in mind especially (1) the needs of American college and university admissions officers and registrars for information which will aid in the reception and educational placement of foreign students; (2) American students, teachers, and research workers contemplating study or professional work in other lands; (3) comparative information useful to the same types of personnel in all countries; and (4) the provision of basic data on comparative higher education desired by students, teachers, university administrators, and national ministries of education throughout the world.

The exhibits descriptive of individual institutions of higher education in each country will be preceded by concise "national introductions" in each of which some of the following items appear: general educational conditions; statistics of literacy; elementary and secondary school attendance; the educational ladder; something of the character of secondary education; limited remarks on equivalences, when possible; and the names and addresses of agencies in position to dispense information about higher education in the country concerned.

It has been our good fortune to obtain contributions concerning several of the larger nations from especially qualified scholars

of international standing. The introduction to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland is contributed by Isaac L. Kandel, well-known authority on comparative education, now holding a professorship at the Victoria University of Manchester. Robert J. Havighurst, who has twice visited Germany since 1947 to observe and investigate educational conditions, contributes the introduction to that country. The article on France has been written by Robert John Matthew, holder of the *doctorat de l'université* from the University of Clermont-Ferrand. Walter Crosby Eells, adviser on higher education to the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers in Tokyo, writes on Japan. China will be introduced by Kendric N. Marshall, formerly a resident and teacher in that land, and now director of the Division of International Educational Relations in the U.S. Office of Education. A contribution to the treatment of higher education in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics was made by Nicholas Hans, lecturer in comparative education at King's College of the University of London.

A small staff headed by M. M. Chambers at the Council offices has worked consistently to do justice to the very large and varied task of assembling data from every corner of the world and of presenting the facts in as reliable and useful form as is possible under existing limitations. The product will be a reference volume which in most of its features will be the first of its kind—a new tool to facilitate the hoped-for increasing cross-fertilization of knowledge in comparative higher education, and to expedite the growth of a closer fellowship among all persons interested in the role of universities in a shrinking world, wherever they may be on the globe and whatever profession or specialty they pursue or aspire to.

As a companion volume to our well-known *American Universities and Colleges*, now in its fifth edition, and *American Junior Colleges*, now in its second edition, the new work completes the picture of higher educational institutions throughout the world, and will provide a basis—and an impetus, it may be hoped—toward an expanding interest in comparative education

on the part of all peoples. To afford American readers a foretaste of small portions of by-product facts and figures, ten brief articles have been published during the past year in such journals as *College and University*, the *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, the *Journal of Higher Education*, *School and Society*, and *Higher Education*.

V. CONFERENCES

In the course of the year the Council found it desirable to call conferences of representatives of various organizations and other competent people to discuss diverse matters of emerging importance in the field of education. Hence, in this report there are included short statements concerning several conferences which it seemed desirable to hold, as follows: (1) conference of representatives of the constituent member organizations of the Council; (2) implications of atomic energy for education; (3) selected problems in elementary education; (4) upgrading Army officers in education; (5) Pacific Coast conference on higher education. Several other conferences are described in connection with the work of various committees and commissions.

MEETING OF REPRESENTATIVES FROM CONSTITUENT MEMBER ORGANIZATIONS

It appears clear as the result of the experience of the past few years that the midwinter special meeting of the representatives of the constituent member organizations belonging to the Council has fully demonstrated its value. This year the meeting was held in Washington on January 28-29, 1949. Ninety-one representatives of 56 national and regional organizations were present.

Inasmuch as the organizations cover all levels of education it is not easy to select topics for discussion which are of common interest. Contemplated legislation in Congress relating to education and regulations growing out of such legislation are about as likely to meet this criterion as any group of subjects. Hence the January conference concerned itself with (1) changing relationships of education and government; (2) selective service;

(3) tax exemption; (4) extension of social security benefits; (5) problems pertaining to foreign students; (6) proposed federal scholarship and fellowship program; and (7) the federal program in education. At the evening session the theme was "Education and International Relations."

Inasmuch as most of the actions of this conference are discussed earlier in this annual report in connection with the work of the Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government no attempt will be made here, with one exception, to summarize them. Suffice it to say at this point that these recommendations were important links in the Council's program of action during the year.

CONFERENCE ON ATOMIC ENERGY AND EDUCATION

Every major development of applied science has implications for the life and culture of the world, the extent of which is naturally not fully appreciated at the time. These implications affect the theory and practice of education, and become what I have frequently called an emerging field of education.

No event in recent decades illustrates this situation better than the implications both for peace and for war inherent in the discoveries with respect to atomic energy. No one knows or can know fully these implications at this time, but the educational world is very anxious to know in what way its program should be modified in the light of present knowledge.

One of the most obvious media of information for the schools with respect to atomic energy seems to be motion pictures. Accordingly on March 7-8 the Council called together a conference of representative educators, motion picture producers, and government officials, including particularly representatives of the Atomic Energy Commission, to consider what action might be taken.

After extended discussion the conference group cordially endorsed the idea of the production of both still and motion pictures to make information with respect to atomic energy available to the public for use in the schools.

But the conference group went even further. It felt that there needed to be a full consideration of all avenues incident to the implications of atomic energy for the schools. Accordingly the group approved a report which is best summarized in its own words:

The development of atomic energy has put a new and powerful force into the stream of modern life. The future democratic control and use of this new force must rest on the enlightened judgment of our people. Their decisions can be no better than the information, attitudes, and vision they possess regarding the potentiality of atomic energy.

It is essential that schools and institutions of higher learning and affiliated agencies for adult education recognize the facts and interpret the social significance of this new force. Their curriculums, teaching materials, and personnel should reflect their effort to meet this great responsibility.

It is imperative that education in America have some systematic means for securing and effectively interpreting the information on atomic energy. The absence of a facility to stimulate and guide such activities has led to confusion and inertia in developing needed educational programs and materials.

It is here recommended that the American Council on Education appoint a Commission for Education on Atomic Energy. The Commission, a continuing organization of the Council, should collaborate with and seek information from the Atomic Energy Commission and other sources of information on atomic energy. It should concern itself with formal education, its initial activities being in general education and teacher education. In cooperation with the appropriate agencies and professional groups, it should serve the following purposes:

1. Develop and keep current educational objectives in teaching the facts and the significance of atomic energy in modern society.
2. Serve as a clearinghouse for information on atomic energy, its impact on contemporary life, and ways of using such information in educational programs.
3. Serve as a facility to sponsor experimental projects in the modification of curriculums and in the development of educational materials and methods for the effective use of atomic energy information in formal education.
4. To promote the appropriate distribution and use of the findings of the Commission in the classrooms of the Nation.

CONFERENCE ON SELECTED PROBLEMS IN ELEMENTARY
EDUCATION

In the school field much attention has been given for some years to the problems of secondary education. Many leaders in elementary education feel that their problems are not receiving comparable and adequate attention. Hence the Council agreed to call a small conference of elementary school leaders in March of this year to consider some selected problems.

At that time the members of the group were pleasantly surprised to find that the Council had given more attention to their problems than was at first supposed, through such commissions or committees as those on motion pictures, filmstrips and slides, teacher education, intergroup education, Southern Regional Studies and Education, the study of the characteristics of successful teachers, and various projects in the field of international education.

After some lively discussions the group early reached the conclusion that further teaching materials, supplementing textbooks, were greatly needed, particularly in the field of child development through motion pictures for use not only in schools but with parents and preservice and in-service teacher education. It was believed that such films could be produced and made generally available through the cooperation of, say, twenty school systems. It was also hoped that the U.S. Office of Education might serve as an exchange center for packets of pamphlet material produced by state and local educational systems.

There was also a lengthy discussion of the serious shortage of adequately prepared teachers for the elementary schools. It was the belief of members of the conference that the difficulty was not due entirely to low salaries but also to certain other factors, including large classes, inadequate buildings, and to lack of democratic practices in administration and in the planning of school programs. It was suggested that the U. S. Office of Education might make a public statement on the emergency now facing the elementary schools and call a conference to consider what actions should be taken.

On the second day of the conference the discussion centered in

part on the serious health situation confronting the children of elementary school age on account of the thoroughly inadequate school health facilities to be found in most schools. Would it be possible to dramatize this situation by selecting a spot check on health conditions in a sample selection of school systems? The group requested that this situation also be called to the attention of those who are responsible for the 1950 White House Conference on Children and Youth.

Other topics which evoked considerable discussion at this conference included further research on class size and the need for a volume on helping communities to understand good education paralleling the Council's volume on *Helping Teachers Understand Children*.

COMMITTEE ON FULFILLMENT OF DEGREE REQUIREMENTS BY REGULAR MILITARY PERSONNEL

On October 30 and 31, 1948, representatives of educational institutions, accrediting associations, and the military services, met in Washington to discuss problems involved in providing opportunities for personnel in the regular military services to complete requirements for the bachelor's degree. This committee approved a general statement of readiness to cooperate, and recommended the appointment of a Continuation Committee, under the auspices of the American Council on Education, to aid in guiding the studies proposed by the conference and the development of further plans for the implementation of this project.

The Continuation Committee met on February 5, 1949, and reviewed memoranda setting forth the problem, and the statement approved by the exploratory conference. The committee then considered a series of alternatives. One of these concerned an extension of certain present institutional practices to include enough higher institutions, located near concentrations of military personnel, to provide opportunities for a large number of those on active duty. The other positive recommendation involved the creation by Congress of a College of the Military Establishment under a civilian Board of Fellows, which would

evaluate educational achievement and confer degrees, but would not be a teaching organization.

The report of the Continuation Committee was circulated to the civilian members of the exploratory conference, many of whom commented upon the alternatives. Should the first of these two alternatives be adopted, as now seems likely, the Council, through its Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences, proposes to explore the matter further, involving the following steps:

1. Personal visits to a group of higher institutions located near concentration of military personnel, especially those institutions which have part-time, off-duty opportunities for study.

2. If the above institutions can provide opportunities through which candidates may meet the residence requirements for the degree with a combination of part-time and full-time study at the institution, the need for some central office will be studied. If such an office, acting as a clearinghouse and counseling agency for the institutions and the military personnel should be desirable, it seems likely that such an office could be set up, supported by a contract with the National Military Establishment.

3. The original exploratory conference suggested that if such a program were instituted, a booklet be published indicating the specific requirements of the individual institutions involved. The final decision as to all requirements will remain, of course, the prerogative of the individual institutions. It should be further understood that no program is contemplated which would prevent any accredited higher institution from participating in such a program within its own individual requirements.

CONFERENCE ON JOINT COMMITTEE ON FOURTEENTH- GRADE EXAMINATIONS

Another important action with respect to testing programs grew out of a conference of representative educators initiated by the College Entrance Examination Board and held at the University of Michigan, February 7 and 8. At that time it was pointed out that with the increasing growth of junior colleges more and more students were likely to transfer to four-year

colleges and to universities at the end of the fourteenth year. As this situation develops there will undoubtedly be increasing need for tests which will aid institutions in the selection of students for the upper division. There was general agreement that such a battery of tests would be desirable.

Accordingly the College Entrance Examination Board set aside \$25,000 to underwrite the program and invited the American Council on Education to appoint a committee jointly with the board which should be in general charge of the program. The Executive Committee of the Council accepted this invitation at its meeting yesterday, May 5, and steps are now being taken to appoint the members of this joint committee.

CONFERENCE BOARD OF ASSOCIATED RESEARCH COUNCILS

Reference has been made in last year's annual report to the Conference Board of Associated Research Councils consisting of representatives from the American Council of Learned Societies, the American Council on Education, the National Research Council, and the Social Science Research Council. Through a contract with the Board of Foreign Scholarships set up under the terms of the Fulbright Act, the Conference Board of the Associated Research Councils has created a special Committee on the International Exchange of Persons. Under the terms of the Fulbright Act, the Board of Foreign Scholarships is charged with the responsibility of selecting individuals and institutions which will participate under the act, and with the supervision of the exchange program. The committee of the Conference Board has the responsibility for preliminary screening of applicants for grants at the postdoctoral level who wish to teach, lecture, offer technical instruction, or carry on research in connection with institutions of higher learning. Similar screening responsibilities have been delegated to the Institute of International Education in the selection of individuals wishing to study in foreign institutions primarily at the graduate level, and to the U.S. Office of Education in the selection of those who wish to teach abroad in national elementary and secondary schools. The committee of the Conference Board will screen applicants

for teaching positions in American elementary and secondary schools abroad.

The work of the Conference Board's committee on the exchange of professors and research scholars under the Fulbright Act, A. J. Brumbaugh, chairman, has increased greatly. At the present time agreements under the Fulbright Act have been signed by nine countries, as follows: United Kingdom, Philippines, New Zealand, Greece, France, China, Burma, Belgium and Luxembourg, and Italy. The tenth—the Netherlands—is expected to sign on May 17th.

It has been necessary from time to time to arrange for conferences between the committee and representatives of the Department of State to review procedures and to clarify administrative relationships. As a result of these conferences the functions and responsibilities of the Conference Board committee have been fairly well clarified and defined. The committee is responsible for reviewing and commenting on programs submitted by the committees or foundations in the countries with which exchange agreements have been made; for screening applications for appointment to teaching and research positions abroad; and for recruiting personnel for key positions for which no qualified applicants are available. Thus far approximately 37 appointments of scholars and professors have been approved by the Board of Foreign Scholarships to which the committee makes its recommendations. As the program for the exchange of scholars and professors expands, the Conference Board, through its committee, finds it necessary and desirable to call upon many specialists in various fields to assist it in appraising the qualifications of applicants. The procedure followed by the committee makes it possible to enlist the interest and cooperation of individuals and institutions throughout the United States, thereby creating a growing awareness of the importance of this program. The initial activities of the Conference Board in this area were supported by a special grant from the Rockefeller Foundation. These activities are now carried on under a contract with the Department of State.

The project relating to the supply of leadership personnel in

various professional, technical, and research fields is still a major concern. Three special studies, to which I referred in my last annual report, were reviewed by a representative group of educators who met for two days at Princeton, New Jersey, on June 21 and 22, 1948. It was the purpose of the meeting to examine the information contained in the reports and to advise the Conference Board whether the reports indicated that an important problem had been identified, whether the methods and techniques used promised to yield valuable information if pursued further, and whether this was a problem in which the Associated Research Councils should continue to have a special interest. It was the opinion of the group, after reviewing the reports and exploring the field somewhat intensively, that (1) the evidence is unmistakable that society has come to that point where the increasing demand and the static supply of high-level personnel make it necessary to analyze this phenomenon for the purpose of understanding it; (2) the problem is so urgent that it should have the highest priority among the activities of the Associated Research Councils; (3) there is probably no other organization which is likely to take the interest in this problem which the Associated Research Councils will take because of their special interest in persons of very high competence. In accordance with the opinions expressed in this conference, a project for further study of this problem has been presented to one of the foundations, and is currently under consideration.

Among other projects to which the Conference Board has given special consideration are:

1. The establishment of a center in Washington that would facilitate cooperative arrangements between educational institutions and organizations and government agencies relating to the training of specialized personnel and other special phases of education. Some phases of such cooperation can be carried on effectively through the separate councils, but the possibility of developing some type of center which would assume responsibilities that do not fall within the province of any single council will be given further consideration.

2. The publication of a national atlas of the United States,

plans for which have been presented to the Conference Board.

3. The establishment of a central registry of visiting professors where information might be accumulated about foreign professors and scholars planning to come to the United States as well as about Americans planning to go overseas, in order that more effective use may be made of their services. This proposal is currently being studied by the Conference Board's Committee on International Exchange of Persons.

VI. ACCREDITATION

In October 1948 the Association of American Universities decided to discontinue the accrediting of universities and colleges, an activity in which it had continuously engaged since 1913. This pronouncement produced a long chain of reactions, some of which could be anticipated, others not. The American Association of University Women had used the list as the basis for eligibility to membership in that organization. What should the AAUW do now for a substitute list? Foreign universities, whose inquiries as to a list of institutions on which they might depend had induced the Association of American Universities to undertake the work originally, are now wondering where to go for help. New England and California, where no comprehensive regional accrediting associations exist are left with nothing as a substitute. To many people, therefore, the effect of the association's announcement has been viewed with genuine concern. Others, who believe that accrediting associations have outlived their usefulness and who are even convinced that their activities result in more evil than good, are now enjoying the discomfiture of the friends of accrediting.

Such an occasion, therefore, seems to present an opportunity and perhaps a responsibility to evaluate the situation. To do so adequately would be no small task because accrediting goes much more to the center of American educational organization and conduct than most people realize. In this discussion I shall take the position that to discontinue the accrediting of educational institutions is both undesirable and impossible. However,

improving the present situation seems to me both necessary and impending.

In the background of the criticism with respect to accrediting is the general feeling that inasmuch as so much progress has been made in our ability to evaluate the native ability and the accomplishment of individuals, we should be less and less concerned as to what kind of an institution, if any, they attend.

Nevertheless, the parent, the taxpayer, the dean of the graduate or the professional school, the state licensing board, the prospective donor, the state legislature, and, in fact, any good citizen wants to know whether a school or a college is rendering good service to the community, the state, and the nation. In this respect, a college or a university is in no different position before the general public than any other social institution which it supports or charters. In other words, an institution, the same as an individual, has qualities and characteristics which need to be evaluated.

This is true in spite of the fact that, from the earliest time, in the history of British universities, charters were secured from the Crown guaranteeing the freedom of universities from interference on the part of the state—a situation which was preserved intact in the United States by the famous Dartmouth College decision. Liberty of an educational institution to teach its conception of the truth is one of the dearest liberties inherent in the American democratic system.

Yet no one, so far as I know, contends that educational institutions do not have corresponding social obligations to which even the state may not appropriately give attention. Every form of government has an obligation to set up minimum standards of facilities for the incorporation of a school or a college. Moreover, a state is under no corresponding obligation to accept the graduates of universities into the professions, such as law, medicine, or engineering, without the further requirement that the individual pass an examination. Obviously, the character of these examinations may have a powerful though indirect effect upon individual institutions.

Inasmuch as in our country there are forty-nine licensing centers for the professions, so there may be forty-nine different standards. Such a state of chaos has resulted in professions of high quality in certain states and uneven—even low—quality in others. Popular opinion is not qualified to pass on so technical a matter. Neither are the members of the profession within a state always able to cope with the situation.

Hence the national accrediting agency. After all, should not the most intelligent opinion as to what constitutes a good and acceptable professional education and the facilities necessary to produce qualified personnel be the aroused and combined opinions of those who teach and practice them? So it was in medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, nursing, law, engineering, and the like that through thoroughly democratic procedures, minimum national standards in the professional schools were gradually developed. The process constituted one of the greatest forward steps in the history of American education. Slowly, but surely, it eliminated the low quality professional school; it powerfully influenced for good the character of the examinations given by state licensing boards; and it brought the combined opinion of leaders in the several professions upon the curriculum, the organization, and the quality of faculty personnel within the respective institutions. I repeat it was an example of American democracy at its best.

The case of professional education is one thing, that of general education quite another. Standards in professional education are justified because the lives, property, and rights of individuals (patients and clients) are at stake. In general education the *quality* of the individual citizen is at stake—a situation which may be equally important but much more intangible and one which justifies variation from the norm far more than in professional education.

Nevertheless, as I stated earlier, the parent, the prospective donor, the state legislature, and the general citizen may be, indeed should be, deeply concerned with the quality of an institution even in the field of general education. Equally obvious is the fact that the general public through state legislatures or even as members of governing boards is incapable of exercising much

in the way of beneficial influence on the quality of performance within an institution. Primarily, therefore, this obligation rests upon the individuals—administrators and faculty alike—who compose the staff. Many, if not most, are alert, inventive, and hardworking. But being human, others need the stimulus, sometimes even the gentle raps, of their professional associates lest in their comparative security they fall into routine procedures and habits of mind.

But when it comes to measuring the quality of an educational institution, we are indeed presented with a problem. The temptation is straightway to assume that if an institution has buildings, equipment, laboratories, libraries, a faculty with Ph.D. degrees, and high school graduates as students, it is a good institution. Whereas, of course, all these are only *conducive* to good work, not *guarantees* of it.

It is in this area that I find practically all, if not all, accrediting associations to be deficient. Every educational institution should have announced objectives in the preparation of its students, whether professional or technological on the one hand or general on the other. Each should then be able to demonstrate as objectively as possible its progress in preparing students to meet these objectives. In doing so, there will be great variety of performance because objectives will differ and the preparation and intellectual quality of the student body will vary tremendously. Consistency in turning out graduates who regularly pass examinations above the average is only one evidence of a good institution. Another and equally important is that measure indicating what an institution does with students, both average and superior, in attaining its objectives. So far as I know, accrediting agencies have made little or no progress in the use of techniques of this character. It seems to me that it is imperative that they do so because there is widespread feeling that the present standards which measure primarily physical plant, income, and the preparation of faculty and students are altogether inadequate to evaluate the quality of an institution's performance.

The second major deficiency in the present situation in ac-

crediting arises out of the natural tendency to proliferate it beyond reason and necessity. If there is good cause to accredit medical schools, or engineering schools, or library schools, through standards set up by the people who operate them, why is it not equally defensible and desirable for those who operate the departments of chemistry, physics, dietetics, botany, French, and history to do the same thing? All of these, and many more, disciplines have member organizations through which they can express themselves forcefully and presumably authoritatively. Certainly no one would wish to deny any member of a college faculty the opportunity to express his opinion on any educational matter. Too few of them indeed are in the habit of doing so. But the proliferation of accrediting procedures has very definite drawbacks. It places emphasis on the acquisition of a particular segment of knowledge rather than upon a well-rounded education. It results in competition rather than cooperation within a faculty, and it removes from the administration of a particular institution in no small degree the responsibility for coordination and direction of educational programs and places it too largely in the hands of guilds of scholars whose headquarters are elsewhere.

Hence what started as a necessary reform in American education can easily outlive its usefulness unless it improves its methods, avoids excesses, and adapts itself to oncoming demands. I believe that the accrediting agencies face such a situation at the present time.

What may we very properly do about the accrediting situation under present circumstances? The National Association of State Universities and the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities some years ago appointed a joint committee, which has recently been expanded into a joint committee representing five associations. In its earlier phase this committee erected a stout warning against the proliferation of accrediting into smaller and smaller subject-matter fields, a warning which was thoroughly justified.

More recently, the American Council's Committee on Ac-

crediting Procedures, Charles E. Friley, chairman, at a meeting on January 26 and 27, 1949, to which were invited representatives of the joint committee of the land-grant colleges and universities, explored intensively the question of coordinating the activities of existing accrediting agencies and of finding a means of supplying the needs previously met by the list of approved institutions of the Association of American Universities. It reached the conclusion that rather than to promote the establishment of a new national organization which would assume the function of the Association of American Universities, it would be desirable to endeavor to coordinate and to some extent unify the regional accrediting associations. With a view to exploring further this possibility, a conference of representatives of the regional associations was held in Chicago on March 14 and 15. At that meeting the discussion centered on three major issues: (1) the need for a national list of accredited institutions of higher education; (2) the need for a greater degree of cooperation and coordination within the whole accrediting movement; (3) the urgency for some control over the growth in number of accrediting agencies.

In the conference it was agreed to request each accrediting agency to appoint a member and an alternate member to a national committee of regional accrediting agencies, with one vote for each agency represented on the committee, to carry on the following functions: (1) to publish a list of "Accredited Institutions of Higher Education of the United States," to consist of those institutions accredited by the regional accrediting agencies; (2) to work toward a greater degree of uniformity of philosophy among regional accrediting agencies; (3) to develop a place for the collection of uniform information from all collegiate members of regional accrediting agencies; (4) to work with other accrediting agencies and other groups interested in problems of accrediting, looking toward a great degree of cooperation and coordination within the whole accrediting movement (for example, one problem would be the exploration of plans for securing and disseminating information on the success of students from various institutions in advanced studies); (5) to consider,

in cooperation with other groups, plans for the establishment of "A National Federation of Collegiate Accrediting Agencies," including the possibility and desirability of establishing a central office and staff to carry on the work of such federation.

Although not all of the regional associations have been heard from at this time, there is little question that the general plan will be approved and that in the early future the national committee will be established.

In my opinion, this procedure offers a very practical solution for an immediate problem. More important, it provides a possible way for the accrediting agencies to begin serious consideration of other basic problems in accrediting about which there have been justifiable complaints. The Council stands ready to assist this consideration in any way it can.

In the long run, however, the solution of the problems of accrediting is the responsibility of the institutions themselves. If an institution allows a substandard situation to develop, it may well cast doubt on the quality of the governing board, the administration, and the faculty. If standards and procedures that are regarded as unnecessary or indefensible are adopted at annual meetings of educational associations, it may easily be because the presidents have not attended the meeting or counseled with their deans who did. In other words, as I have indicated earlier, accrediting agencies are thoroughly democratic organizations created by, and whose policies and procedures are determined by, the representatives of member institutions. Whether, therefore, accrediting agencies enhance the quality of American education over the long future depends very largely upon the ability and willingness of the representatives of member institutions to cooperate effectively toward that end.

COMMISSION ON ACCREDITATION OF SERVICE EXPERIENCES

A short time prior to the annual meeting in 1948, the Commission on Accreditation, Paul E. Elicker, chairman, and Thomas N. Barrows, director, received additional financial support through a contract between the United States Armed Forces Institute and the American Council on Education. This contract

for \$25,000 was for the period April 1, 1948, to March 31, 1949. The contract has been renewed and signed, continuing this support until March 31, 1950. There is every indication that the military services intend to renew this contract from year to year; thus the commission's future activities may be planned accordingly.

During the past year, the commission has issued two publications. The USAFI Section of the *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Forces* has been completely revised and published as a 64-page pamphlet. The *Accreditation Policies of State Departments of Education*, originally published in 1946, has been revised and brought up to date to include the peacetime accreditation policies of the various state departments of education. It includes information also on the policies of the various states relative to nonveteran adults. Both of these publications have been distributed to all higher institutions, to virtually all high schools through the various state departments of education, to the military services for use by education officers in the field, to the Veterans Administration, and to other agencies. About 45,000 copies of each publication have been printed.

Because of the continuing extensive use of the Tests of General Educational Development, two additional forms have been prepared during the past year for use by the military services. There are now six forms, three used by the military, and three by civilian educators.

The commission has continued to arrange for evaluations of military schools and training programs in order to make credit suggestions to civilian education. The advisory service through which these recommendations are reported to schools and colleges continues to expand. Higher institutions increasingly seek the commission's counsel relative to military training and to other accreditation problems as well. Members of the staff of the commission are constantly called upon to advise with the military services in virtually all matters having to do with their education programs and, increasingly, in some of their training problems.

The Veterans Testing Service, located in Chicago, which operates under policies determined by the Commission on Accreditation, continues to function effectively. The VTS has about 600 agencies under contract to rent and administer Tests of General Educational Development and other USAFI examinations. Very few agencies have terminated their activities, although some have reduced the number of tests which they stock, and as might be expected, the total activity is slowing down. However, the reduction in number of veterans being tested is offset somewhat by the increased number of nonveteran adults who are participating in the testing program.

The New York State High School Equivalency Testing Program was set up in July 1947 as an American Council on Education project, at the request of the New York State Education Department. It was anticipated that the Council's participation in this project would terminate July 1, 1948. It has been extended twice for six-month periods, at the request of the New York State Education Department but will terminate finally on June 30, 1949. Although the project will be concluded with a deficit, its operations during the past several months have been such as to reduce this deficit considerably from what it was in July 1948.

Members of the staff of the commission have participated in several educational conferences throughout the country and have assisted in a number of activities concerned with accreditation of educational programs in the military services. The staff of the commission has worked closely with the Veterans Administration hospital program which is doing a splendid job of rehabilitation. It has assisted as it could with the exploration of opportunities for regular service personnel to continue their general education through the baccalaureate level while on active duty. The director of the commission served on a special committee, appointed by the Air Force, to study and advise the Air Force relative to the Language Training Program of its personnel.

The commission has operated well within the budget adopted April 1, 1948. In general, 10 percent of the expenditures of the

commission is charged to the original grant of the Carnegie Corporation, and the balance to the contract with USAFI. As of April 1, 1949, there still remained unexpended \$6,555.60 of the original Carnegie Corporation grant of \$75,000. Although some aspects of the commission's activities seem to be expanding, it is anticipated that it will continue to operate within the limits of the present contract with USAFI and the Carnegie funds still available.

VII. THE EDUCATIONAL TESTING SERVICE

As set forth in my report last year the Council merged, effective January 1, 1948, its test production and distribution activities with those of the College Board and the Carnegie Foundation to form the Educational Testing Service. The Council and the other two organizations each named one-third of the twelve members of the governing board. The new organization started with assets of approximately \$1,349,000. A building in Princeton, New Jersey, has been purchased and remodeled as a central office of the Service, and the staff and test materials hitherto housed in the old medical buildings of Columbia University in New York City have been transferred to Princeton. A branch office, originally established in San Francisco, is being moved to Los Angeles. Tentative plans are under way to establish another branch office in Chicago.

Many problems have naturally confronted the new organization which have not been dealt with by the governing board but by a smaller executive committee which has met frequently during the past year. Two other committees, on Tests and Measurements and on Test Programs, have served to guide the staff in the more technical aspects of its program.

It will be recalled that last year I discussed at some length the desirability of the Council's setting up a committee on tests in general education and related matters. Before setting up such a committee, it seemed desirable to explore the matter further. Fortunately, the services of George W. Angell of Michigan State College, who has devoted considerable attention to the field of general education at the college level, were available during the

fall of 1948. Dr. Angell visited a number of universities in order to sound out the opinions of various persons who have worked in this field. His report showed, as is well known, a diversity of conceptions of general education and an ardent desire on the part of most individuals dealing with this field for instruments of evaluation in order that they may be more certain as to whether their respective objectives are being accomplished. It seems very likely, therefore, that a series of studies basic to the preparation of evaluation instruments for experimental purposes should be the main concern of the committee which will shortly be set up by the Council. Fortunately, the Council has a special appropriation of \$50,000 from the Carnegie Corporation to begin this work.

The importance of this enterprise is further attested by an action of the governing board of the Educational Testing Service at its meeting on October 14, 1948, as follows:

Resolved, That, if the American Council on Education shall appoint a special committee to ascertain the objectives of general education, the President, with the approval of the Executive Committee, be, and he hereby is, authorized and directed to establish cooperative procedures, including financial arrangements, with such committee.

Since that time Dr. Henry Chauncey, president of the Educational Testing Service, has requested the Council's committee to serve as an advisory committee to the Service with respect to its testing activities at the college level. Similar invitations have been extended to the Association of American Universities and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals at the graduate and secondary-school levels respectively.

As described elsewhere in this report, the New York State High School Equivalency Testing Program was continued by special arrangements to July 1, 1949. At the time of the merger, this program and the veterans testing program were turned over completely to the Educational Testing Service. Later it appeared that these two programs should stand in approximately the same relationship to the Educational Testing Service as the National Teacher Examination program and the College Entrance Examination Board examination program. In

other words, the Council should not only be responsible for the character of the tests but should receive any net gain in revenue derived from the programs. Accordingly appropriate modifications of the original merger agreement were entered into.

Under the new arrangement the Veterans Testing Service continued to pay a modest overhead fee to the Educational Testing Service. Similarly, since the Educational Testing Service performed only fiscal services in receiving and disbursing funds for the New York State program, its fee was reduced to 12.5 percent for general overhead and research purposes.

Another important factor in the better financial situation in the New York State program was the fact that beginning with July 1, 1948, a fee of \$4.00 per person was charged USAFI candidates for certificates. If a satisfactory settlement for the 8,000 USAFI cases on file and partly processed in the New York office can be reached with the New York State Education Department, the total deficit incurred by the Council, including about \$8,000 in fees to the Educational Testing Service, will be reduced to approximately \$5,500 by July 1, 1949. This represents a very substantial improvement in the situation over the previous year. Indeed, during the past year both the New York State program and the Veterans Testing Service have shown modest net gains.

VIII. REPORTS ON OTHER ACTIVITIES

COMMISSION ON MOTION PICTURES

During the year the Commission on Motion Pictures, Mark A. May, chairman, submitted its final report. This report sets forth in some detail the fields of education which were covered by the commission, including global geography, problems of democracy, mathematics, art, and music. The largest emphasis was given to global geography and to the problems of democracy where important contributions were made in quite different forms as basic material for the production of films suitable for educational use. Committees composed of representative teachers assisted greatly in the outlines for motion pictures in mathematics, art, and music.

At the conclusion of its work, the commission released to producers plans for 117 films. Sixty-five of these are in the form of preliminary treatments or scripts; 52 in the form of educational specifications. Up to the present time only the film scripts in global geography have been extensively used in plans for production.

Naturally, as a result of its five years of experience, the commission had a number of major observations to make in its final report, published under the title *Planning Films for Schools*. Several of these seem to me to be so important in planning the production of educational motion pictures in the future that I take the liberty of quoting them.

In the first place, it is not easy to get a committee of teachers of a given subject to agree on the types of film which should be made. They will usually agree that more and better films are needed in their field, but when it comes to defining teaching needs and writing specifications for films to meet these needs, wide differences of opinion are encountered (p. 29).

Teachers also differ in their conceptions of the role of the film in teaching. Some teachers want films that will do as much of the entire teaching job as possible. Others prefer films for specific teaching purposes, for example, to motivate reading or research, to give a general over-all view of a topic, or to review and summarize it. Others seek films that will bring to the classroom visualization of basic ideas and problems (p. 29).

Another type of problem is how far educators themselves should try to go in developing plans for films. Should they simply prepare a statement of the educational ends to be met by the film (objectives), should they further undertake research on the selection and organization of subject matter, or should they carry the preparation of material to the preliminary treatment or script stage? These last two steps in the preparation of film are extremely expensive ones, as they require the services of highly skilled writers. They are difficult for educators to handle because as a rule they lack experience in this type of work (p. 31).

Many of the commission's difficulties have been due largely to the fact that from the outset it has not known who would produce its materials. The ideal situation would be for a film-planning agency such as the commission to work cooperatively with specific producers in carrying a film or

a number of films from the initial planning stages to the finished product.

The commission found that it is exceedingly difficult to transform materials found in textbooks, syllabuses, and other curricular materials into suitable film outlines. One reason for this is that the motion picture is based primarily on the dramatic and narrative form of expression rather than on the expository form found in most texts. Furthermore, the element of motion is of prime importance. Therefore, in order to use the motion picture effectively, the material for filming must contain action. This difficulty cannot be overcome simply by using a conversational style of writing, because in a film, conversation between individuals lacks the dynamic action necessary for the most effective use of the medium (p. 31).

Before concluding his work with the commission, Mr. R. S. Hadsell, associate director of the commission, supplied at the request of the Film Section of UNESCO in Paris a selected list of film suggestions for the use of UNESCO. Similar requests were also made of other nations. It was requested that the suggestions be broken down roughly into three categories as follows: (a) films describing selected particular achievements of each nation; (b) films which recount the case histories of cooperation between two or more nations in education, science, and culture; (c) films adapted for use in the field of fundamental education in undeveloped areas of the world.

COMMITTEE ON AVIATION EDUCATION

In cooperation with the Civil Aeronautics Administration, the American Council on Education has been engaged in a modest aviation education program through the activities of a committee of which Harry Bard is chairman. One of the most interesting projects in this program was initiated June 22, 1948, at which time teachers and supervisors representing twenty-seven nationally distributed school systems attended a conference held in Washington, D.C., for a period of a week. The operating schools from which these representatives came were chosen by state departments of education. Experimental classrooms were selected by the administration of a given school system.

At least two instructional levels from each experimental center were included in the study. The selected teachers and super-

visors were not specifically qualified. Their task at the seminar was to mobilize aviation information easily available, and to use such material and information for the purpose of enriching classroom activities prescribed by their regular curriculum with illustrations from the field of aviation.

The materials thus developed are being tried out in their respective school systems during the current school year. Visitation by other teachers is being encouraged. Preliminary reports indicate considerable developing interest in aviation education on the part of those having occasion to observe the progress of the study.

COMMITTEE ON DISCRIMINATIONS IN COLLEGE ADMISSIONS

This committee, Floyd W. Reeves, chairman, has been responsible for directing an objective study of discriminations in college admissions. Funds for the study were made available to the Council through a grant by the Anti-Defamation League and the Vocational Service Bureau of B'nai B'rith. The committee contracted with Elmo Roper to interview high school seniors.

After preparing a very careful plan involving a thoroughly representative sample of students, a total of 15,000 high school seniors were interviewed in April and May 1947. At that time they were asked whether they had applied for admission to college and, if so, to which college or colleges, and whether or not they hoped to go to college "sometime." Those who said they "had not applied," and those who reported "no interest in college" were asked to indicate their reasons for not applying. During October 1947 follow-up inquiries were made to determine whether or not the students had been admitted to college and, if so, whether it was to the institution of their first, second, or third choice. The secondary schools in which such seniors were enrolled cooperated by indicating the quintile rank of all students interviewed. The report of Elmo Roper to the committee has been published as *Factors Affecting the Admission of High School Seniors to College*. An analytical report of the study is now being published under the title *On Getting Into College*.

Time does not permit me to summarize this extremely inter-

esting study. Two or three conclusions seem to me to stand out above all others. One is that religious differences do not bar students from attending *some* institution of higher education, although they may affect *the type* of institution in which their application is accepted. Eighty-eight percent of Protestants, 87 percent of Jews, and 81 percent of Catholics who applied for admission were admitted to some college or university. Another interesting fact is that Jewish students applied to more than twice the number of institutions applied to by either Catholics or Protestants. If the percentage of applications accepted is used as a basis for determining the extent of discrimination, it is found that only 56 percent of the applications of Jewish students were accepted, 67 percent of applications of Catholic students, and 77 percent of those of Protestant students. It is significant also that 35 percent of all high school seniors applied for college admission and another 22 percent of the total indicated that they hoped to go sometime. The economic factor was the most significant deterrent to college attendance, especially for students in the upper two-fifths of their class. In fact, 83 percent of all students said they would go to college if they could be sure of being admitted and were given a scholarship to take care of their tuition and half of their living costs.

There was a wide variation on the basis of religious differences in the percentage of seniors who applied for admission to college: 22 percent of Catholic seniors; 33 percent of the Protestants; and 65 percent of the Jewish seniors. Obviously these percentages have an important bearing on the number from each category accepted by the respective institutions.

This is an extremely important study and will bear careful reading by secondary school, college, and university administrators and counselors. It is hoped that funds may later be available to make a comparable study in the graduate and professional fields and that the study may be extended to include the racial factor.

COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION AND SOCIAL SECURITY

Nearly five years ago the American Council on Education at the request of the Social Security Board, now the Social Security

Administration, of the Federal Security Agency undertook an exploratory and experimental project designed to contribute to the development of personnel for the administration of old-age and survivors insurance, unemployment insurance, public assistance, and other aspects of social security. This project was based on the premise that the agencies in this field, while different in their immediate objectives and exhibiting considerable diversity in operations, shared the same general purpose and had so much that was common in program, in underlying knowledge, and in required competence that they constituted a major division of the social services sufficiently comprehensive in scope to be one of the educational concerns and objectives of the colleges and universities of the country.

Acting on this premise the Council established the Committee on Education and Social Security, Karl de Schweinitz, director. The chairman is Earl G. Harrison. This committee has observed and inquired into the activities of personnel at various levels of operation, from interviewer to top administrator, has analyzed administrative processes, has studied the programs of social security and related services and the materials of the social sciences underlying these programs. The subject matter obtained has been organized and made available, as relevant, for undergraduate and graduate education in the social sciences and in allied fields of professional education, for in-service training, and for use by administrators and their immediate associates.

During the past year the committee has conducted four five-day institutes on social security, one in Washington for teachers of economics, sociology, and political science; one for public welfare administrators under the joint auspices of the University of North Dakota and the North Dakota Board of Public Welfare; a third in Washington for federal and state social security administrators; and a fourth at Ithaca, New York, for social security administrators in that state under a cooperative plan with the School of Industrial and Labor Relations and other interested departments of Cornell University. A five-day institute for federal and state personnel is being held this month in Washington. Also a two-session conference for psychiatrists

planning to enter the field of administration was held under the auspices of the Child Guidance Clinic of Philadelphia.

Two conferences on the teaching of social security were held with an interdepartmental group at the University of Minnesota and a two-day conference at Cornell University on the same subject under the auspices of the School of Industrial and Labor Relations.

People and Process in Social Security, published by the Council in January 1948, describing the knowledge and skill involved in the administration of social insurance and public assistance, is now being used as text or as collateral reading in a number of universities and also extensively in organizations in the field of social security. Another publication—issued in the fall of 1948—*For a Career Service in Social Security*, is being used in counseling activities in universities and by social security agencies in their recruitment activities. A third publication, "The Content of the Public Assistance Job," which appeared as two articles in the *Social Work Journal* has been issued as a reprint by the American Association of Social Workers and is being used for in-service training in public welfare.

An important publication toward which the committee contributed is the report of the Advisory Council on Social Security to the United States Senate Finance Committee. Robert M. Ball, assistant director of the Committee on Education and Social Security, was released to serve as staff director of the Advisory Council. The Advisory Council report appeared during the past year in four parts, *Old-Age and Survivors Insurance*, *Disability Insurance*, *Public Assistance*, and *Unemployment Insurance*. It represents an important contribution to the literature of social security.

The interest with which both administrative agencies and educational institutions are regarding the work of the Committee on Education and Social Security is indicated by a meeting which was held in Washington on April 9, 1949. This meeting, which was attended by 17 administrators and educational leaders, endorsed the program which the committee has been conducting and adopted a resolution urging that this program be further de-

veloped and that its management be enlarged from a committee membership of eight persons to 24 persons, equally divided between the fields of administration and education. This recommendation, if adopted, will lead to the establishment of an educational center for social security administration which will have—in addition to an affiliation with the American Council on Education—the active participation of individual universities and the leading organization of social security administrators.

COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

The major activity of the Committee on Educational Buildings and Equipment during the last year has been in connection with a series of five conferences on Urban University Plant Planning, sponsored by Western Reserve University and the American Council on Education. The chairman of the committee, T. C. Holy, served as chairman of the advisory committee representing the Council in developing these conferences. Walter D. Cocking served as conference chairman at each of the meetings. The series included the following:

Conference	I	December	Research for Plant Planning
Conference	II	January	University Instructional and Office Space Planning
Conference	III	February	Library, Social and Recreational, and Service Space Planning
Conference	IV	April	Problems of the Downtown Location
Conference	V	May	Summary Conference on "Building Problems of Urban Universities"

It is the expectation of Dean Herbert C. Hunsaker and Hermann H. Field, both of Western Reserve University, who had the major responsibility for the planning and conducting of these conferences, that a report similar to that prepared on the conference held in May 1947 (published by the Council under the title *Building Problems of Urban Universities*) will be published.

COMMITTEE ON EXTENSION OF SOCIAL SECURITY BENEFITS

In accordance with the action of the meeting of the representatives of the constituent members of the Council, early in

1948, a Committee on the Extension of Social Security Benefits was appointed in October 1948 as a subcommittee of the Committee on Relationships of Higher Education to the Federal Government. The membership of this committee represents religious, educational, and charitable organizations. Dr. Herman A. Gray, chairman of the New York State Advisory Council on Unemployment, is chairman of the Council committee. The committee has had two meetings and has drawn up the following statement of principles regarding coverage under old-age and survivors insurance benefits.

Protection against the economic hazards incident to old age and death is essential for the welfare of the individual and of the Nation.

A million employees of private nonprofit educational, religious and charitable institutions are at present without the protection of the Federal Old-Age and Survivors Insurance System. Not more than two-fifths of these employees are covered by pension or retirement plans established by the institutions in which they are employed. Even of these plans, many afford only inadequate provision. The basic protection provided through contributory social insurance should be available to all who are dependent on income from work.

The problem is not alone that of the employees of these institutions. More and more their governing bodies are confronted with the growing responsibility of caring for their aging employees. Yet they find it increasingly difficult to cope with this problem through the separate action of the individual institutions. Furthermore these agencies are at a competitive disadvantage in manning their staffs and frequently are unable to employ desired personnel because they can offer no provision for old age and death.

Therefore we advocate the extension of the Federal Old-Age and Survivors Insurance System to the employees of these presently exempted private nonprofit institutions. In the light of the history of social legislation we believe that the desired objective can be achieved only if this coverage is made compulsory.

Half of the four million or more public employees in state and local governments are likewise not covered by existing retirement and pension plans. However, because of constitutional limitations on the power of the federal government it is not possible to provide for a compulsory coverage of these employees. As to such public employees, whatever provision is made will necessarily have to be on the basis of a voluntary agreement be-

tween the federal government and the state and local authorities. We favor provision in the law which would make possible voluntary participation by state and local governmental units in the Old-Age and Survivors System.

We believe that any legislation providing coverage for the employees of educational, religious, and charitable institutions should be formulated in the light of the following principles:

1. A recognition that the private nonprofit institution's payment to the Old-Age and Survivors Insurance Fund is a special contribution for a specific purpose and that in no way does it alter the tax-exempt status of these institutions nor the principles which justify such tax exemption.
2. No distinction should be made between the professional and the non-professional employees but the coverage in these institutions should be universal. This, however, would not affect individuals who are members of religious orders who would be exempted since they are not in a status of employment as defined in any social security legislation.
3. The Federal Old-Age and Survivors Insurance System should be supplementary to existing private pension and retirement plans.
4. The method of correlating existing pension and retirement plans with the federal system should be left to the individual private institution and in the case of public institutions to the state and local units. As an example, this might be either by deducting the contribution to the federal system from what they are now paying or increasing their total payment by the amount of the federal contribution.

This statement was discussed at the meeting of the constituent members of the Council and the following three motions were adopted:

Resolved, That the representatives of the constituent members of the American Council on Education favor the extension of the old-age and survivors benefits of social security to nonprofit, charitable, educational, and religious institutions and organizations, whether privately or publicly controlled.

Resolved, That the representatives of the constituent members of the American Council on Education favor the extension of old-age and survivors benefits of social security to publicly controlled institutions on a voluntary basis.

(The above two resolutions were approved unanimously.)

Resolved, That the conference go on record approving the recommendations of the committee in favor of mandatory extension of old-age and survivors insurance to tax exempt, nonprofit institutions and organizations.

(The third resolution was approved by a vote of 35 to 6.)

The statement, with supporting data, was presented by Dr. Gray to the House Ways and Means Committee, which is considering a revision of the Social Security Act. The issue involved is not as in the 1930's when the Social Security legislation was enacted—whether schools and colleges should be included under old-age and survivors benefits—but whether such payments by employers shall be mandatory or optional. The bill now before the Congress makes the payment by employees in nonpublic institutions mandatory but the payments by employers are optional. The position of the Council's committee and of the majority of the constituent members of the Council is shown in the statements quoted above.

On May 9 the committee will meet again to begin the formulation of a statement regarding the inclusion of employees of religious, educational, and charitable institutions and organizations under the unemployment benefits of the act. This is a much more controversial issue. Since it now appears that Congress will not take action in this session on this aspect of social security, there will be time for a careful consideration of the many problems involved.

COMMITTEE ON FILMSTRIP AND SLIDE PROJECTS

Although the committee, of which Walter E. Hager is chairman, has been inactive during the past year, the black and white filmstrips and kodachrome filmstrips, originally developed with the financial assistance of the Office of Inter-American Affairs for distribution in Latin America, maintain a steady distribution in this country. Both the strips and slides are used at all levels, from the first grade into college courses. The filmstrips are available through the facilities of the Department of State and the offices of military government in occupied countries, as part of the educational program.

Recently a survey was made of the original depositories where the filmstrips are available on loan. This survey showed that during the five years the filmstrip units have been on deposit the circulation has ranged from 75 borrowers of one of the units to 900 of another. The borrowers included schools, colleges, museums, libraries, and organizations.

COMMITTEE ON SOUTHERN REGIONAL STUDIES AND EDUCATION

The Council's Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education, Russell S. Poor, chairman, was established seven years ago. The basic ideas which have evolved out of its work and which have guided its activities are:

1. That the institutions and agencies of education should contribute to improving the level of living in the areas which they serve;
2. That, in order for the educational facilities of an area to contribute effectively to raising the level of living, they must draw on the findings of research and scientific effort dealing with the particular resources of the area;
3. That, in order to use the findings of research more effectively in education, organizational and administrative devices must be developed to effect a liaison among research and educational personnel;
4. That the function of regional organizations is to strengthen and make more effective the activities of state institutions and agencies. At the point where these activities become effective—become developed in the light of regional needs that cut across state boundaries—the usefulness of regional agencies may become limited. They must either pioneer in new directions, or they have served their purpose.

Staff services for the committee have been provided by several institutions in the Southern region. In each case the appointment is approved by the leader's institution or agency. Each project leader works closely with the executive secretary and the chairman in order to coordinate his efforts with the general policies and other activities of the committee.

In March these project leaders and other staff of the committee met with the state chairmen of the resource-use education projects throughout the South. The group reviewed progress made in each state and plotted future directions for various projects. It was agreed to give increased attention to (1) more

intensive efforts toward the development of leadership in the field of resource-use education; and (2) joint planning of state and regional programs.

Work was continued on a cooperative project with the Southern States Work Conference designed to analyze current practices and to develop and experiment with specific programs of improvement in resource instruction. During the first two weeks in June of last year, approximately sixty persons worked together on this resource-use education project. For six months or more they had been accumulating examples of current practices in resource instruction. Other examples were obtained from manuscripts and publications. A preliminary draft of five chapters, produced by the work-conference group, contains descriptions and interpretations of these programs and practices. Plans are well under way for a two weeks' conference to be held in June of this year in conjunction with the Southern States Work Conference. At that time representatives from fourteen Southern states will concentrate on refining for publication the results of their three-year project. The publication will constitute a manual for use of school faculties in developing programs of resource use in their schools and communities.

The committee, in collaboration with the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes, the American Teachers Association, the Conference of Presidents of Negro Land-Grant Colleges, and Tuskegee Institute, sponsored a regional conference on resource-use education from August 22 to 27, 1948. This group project was set up at Tuskegee Institute in Alabama. Participants included faculty members of the leading teacher education colleges for Negroes in the Southern states.

The stated purposes of the work-conference were:

1. To increase the number of qualified personnel to work in the fields of resource-use education and research translation.
2. To develop in each institution represented a "team" which can work together to integrate a resource-use emphasis into the total institutional program.
3. To assist each participant toward increasing his subject matter background on regional and community resources.

4. To provide a variety of opportunities for each institutional team to solve problems and expand interests which they might bring to or develop during the work-conference.

5. To assist participants in improving techniques and skills required to carry out their responsibilities in the field of resource-use education.

As a result of this work-conference, each college team is now in better position to affect leadership in directing college instruction toward more efficient use of resources. Each group also serves in its state to help direct teacher education toward improvement of community living and wiser use of physical and human resources. Recommendations have been made to the committee for an annual regional work-conference designed along similar lines and for several subregional conferences which would enable larger groups to participate in these experiences.

The committee has entered into a contractual relationship with the Tennessee Valley Authority whereby the committee provides advice and assistance to TVA on those phases of its program involving educational relations. Throughout the year, such advice and assistance has been provided through distribution of materials on educational programs to TVA staff, individual conferences, and correspondence. In addition, members of the committee met for an entire day in January with TVA staff to:

1. Review and advise on the educational relationships involved in a number of specific TVA activities.

2. Review materials produced by the TVA and collaborating agencies and to advise with respect to their educational value and procedures for their distribution and use.

3. Explore ways in which the committee can give advice in the administration of study programs with respect to TVA.

4. Suggest additional activities of mutual interest and concern.

Of major interest is the fact that a volume, *Exploring the South*, is now off the press and ready for use by the teachers and pupils of the Southern region. In its 1944 report, *Channeling Research into Education*, the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education pointed out that one of the major deficiencies of the South was the lack of a textbook which dealt with the region—its resources and the way in which these re-

sources might be used most effectively. A special group of Southern educators, research workers, and planners met at Gatlinburg, Tennessee, to discuss this problem. They recommended that such a volume be prepared to meet this need. The committee then arranged with the Institute for Research in Social Science of the University of North Carolina to produce the manuscript.

Four groups of interested people kept in touch with the project as work on the manuscript progressed: (1) an advisory committee of thirty-five members from the states with which the book is particularly concerned; (2) specialists in all fields on which the book touches; (3) teacher education workshop directors in the areas where the book will be used; and (4) classroom teachers and students in all the Southern states. The advice and assistance of these groups was given to the authors continually. The classroom teachers and students used the book experimentally—in a lithoprinted form—prior to its publication. The book was revised to include their suggestions. Now the committee has appointed a special project director to work with institutions, workshop directors, teachers, and others in developing plans for the most effective use of the book. Pupils who use the book will learn what resources are, how they affect our lives, and how they may be used to produce greater wealth and better living. Schools which are relating their programs to community life will find the book helpful in information, viewpoint, and learning activities. The production and use of this book may suggest the possibility of similar activities for other major regions of the nation.

Much of the success of the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education is due to the untiring efforts of Dr. John E. Ivey, Jr., who has served as director of the committee's program. Dr. Ivey has now become director of the important Regional Council for Education. He will, however, continue his connection with the committee as chairman after July 1, 1949.

COMMITTEE ON STUDENT PERSONNEL WORK

During the past year, the Committee on Student Personnel

Work, E. G. Williamson, chairman, has completed and published three brochures and at present has two additional ones in press ready to be issued within the year. In addition there are three more brochures in process under the supervision of special committees which are working on them. It is expected that these three additional brochures will be published in the fall of 1949.

The three brochures issued during the year are as follows: *Graduate Training for Educational Personnel Work*; *The Teacher as Counselor*; *Helping Students Find Employment*.

A revised edition of *The Student Personnel Point of View* is in press and will be issued shortly. The original brochure of this title was published in 1937 and has had wide distribution.

Predicting Success in Professional Schools—the most extensive volume yet sponsored by the committee and too large to appear in the pamphlet series—will be issued in the fall as a cloth-bound book. The three brochures in process and expected to be completed in the fall are as follows: *Student Life and Student Government*; *Student Housing*; and *The Counseling of Foreign Students*.

The committee is in the process of formulating plans for projects in the following fields: methods of evaluating student personnel work; civil rights and responsibilities of students; descriptions of selected institutional personnel programs; a national survey of personnel work similar to the original L. B. Hopkins' study; a national study of the professional training of student personnel workers; needed research in the field of student personnel work.

The continuing and widespread demand for these brochures indicates that they fulfil a real need. They are used by counselors to broaden their perspective and improve their procedures; they are used by administrative officers to inform themselves on developments in personnel work and to provide a basis for evaluating current personnel activities and for projecting further developments; they are used extensively as source materials for graduate students who are preparing to enter some phase of student personnel work.

Advisory Service on Student Personnel Work

Through the generosity of the Hazen Foundation, the program for providing consultants on student personnel work at the request of colleges and universities had been set up under the auspices of the Council. This program has continued through the current year. Its plans have been formulated and reviewed by a subcommittee of the Council's Committee on Student Personnel Work, under the chairmanship of President Helen D. Bragdon of Lake Erie College. No extensive publicity has been given to this advisory service because the number of requests in response to two brief mimeographed statements sent out in the last three years has been greater than could be provided for by the personnel and resources available. During the current year consultants will have visited between 25 and 30 colleges and universities. In the belief that the program must be justified by its effectiveness, efforts have been made to make various types of evaluation. Presidents and deans have been invited to comment either in conferences or by letter on the effectiveness of the consultations. Some of the consultants have met with the subcommittee in charge of the program to exchange experiences and to make a critical appraisal of their activities, and analyses have been made of the written reports submitted by the consultants for the purpose of discovering points of greatest concern to the institutions and the most effective methods of aiding institutions. Considering both the small expenditure involved and the benefits to institutions, as indicated by their reports, this is one of the most gratifying projects of the Council. The Council's Committee on Student Personnel Work has recommended that the project be continued for another year, and the Council has been advised that the Hazen Foundation is agreeable to making further funds available.

COMMITTEE ON STUDY OF TAX EXEMPTION

As I reported at the last annual meeting of the Council, the Committee on Study of Tax Exemption, Carter Davidson, chairman, Robert B. Stewart, director of studies, began its activities almost two years ago. During this past year the committee has

had two meetings, one of them including two representatives from each of the regional associations of business officers of colleges and universities. Also there have been frequent conferences with representatives of the Bureau of Internal Revenue and the Treasury Department. The following statement of principles was approved by the committee and was endorsed at the meeting of the constituent members of the Council in January 1949:

I

We affirm the principle, as already established by law, that the use of income for educational purposes is the basis for federal income tax exemption for nonprofit colleges, universities, and other nonprofit educational institutions.

II

Pursuant to this principle, all income of nonprofit educational institutions from activities directly owned and operated by the educational institutions or directly related to the educational operations of the institutions should be exempt from federal income taxation.

III

In view of their tax-exempt status, it seems appropriate for nonprofit colleges and universities to submit to the government financial reports of income and expenses prepared in accordance with generally accepted principles of financial reporting for such institutions. (See *Financial Reports for Colleges and Universities*, University of Chicago Press, 1935.)

IV

The reports required by the government from the colleges and universities should be those regularly issued by those institutions. In case it is found that such reports do not conveniently supply the information needed by the government, this committee stands ready through an appropriate subcommittee to aid in the preparation of a condensed form of this report for the federal government department.

V

In order that there be no misunderstanding as to the form in which information is required, an amendment should be added to H.R. 6712 as follows:

Amend Section 123, by adding to Paragraph (3) (A), line 19, page 39, as amended, after the word "on," the following: "provided that the return required from such an organization shall be in accordance with

generally accepted principles and standards of financial reporting for such organization."

A number of considerations are involved in these actions. One is that it is extremely important to separate the activities of educational institutions as such from those of charitable trusts which give some proportion of their income to education. This point has been frequently stressed by the committee, and I am glad to report that there is now in the Congress a bill specifically aimed at controlling charitable trusts. By requiring that 85 percent of the gross income of such trusts shall be given annually to religious, educational, or charitable institutions, the pending legislation prevents the continuance of tax exemption for pseudo-charitable trusts, the real purpose of which is to evade taxation. On the other hand, it does not jeopardize bona fide trusts, the real purpose of which is to aid religious, educational, and charitable institutions and organizations.

A second consideration is that the committee and the constituent members of the Council have now come to the conclusion that they should report their income and expenditures to the federal government, but the committee is insistent that such reports shall be on forms prepared with the assistance of the committee based upon accepted accounting procedures of institutions of higher education.

COUNCIL ON COOPERATION IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Membership of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education, during 1948-49, consisted of 17 national and regional educational associations concerned with the preparation and professional development of teachers. Karl W. Bigelow continued as chairman of the council.

CCTE interest in state councils on teacher education was expressed through the holding of a national conference of representatives of such bodies at Estes Park, Colorado, during ten days in August 1948. As a result an introductory manual, *State Councils on Teacher Education*, has been prepared under the editorial chairmanship of L. D. Haskew and is now in press. Dr. Haskew is also author of *The Educational Clinic*, an out-

growth of the CCTE's 1946 National Clinic on Teacher Education. This handbook was published in January.

Another CCTE publication, in February, was *Wanted: 30,000 Instructors for Community Colleges*, prepared by the Conference Committee on the Preparation of Instructors for Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes, L. L. Jarvie, chairman. This was a manifestation of the CCTE's concern with the education of college teachers. Another was its request to the American Council on Education that an effort be made to establish a co-operative study-action project in this area.

The CCTE's College Study in Intergroup Relations, Lloyd Allen Cook, director, concluded its four years of activity in January. The first of two volumes reporting on this study is now in the editorial offices of the American Council; the second is being written by Dr. Cook. A fuller account of the college study appears in the next section.

During the year the CCTE maintained its interest in international aspects of teacher education. Contributions were made to help cover the traveling expenses of two official participants from the United States to the UNESCO seminar on the Education and Training of Teachers, held in England for six weeks in July and August. Dr. Bigelow directed this seminar and A. T. Hill, his assistant, was a staff member. The CCTE has also assisted the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education in connection with its work with visiting teacher-educators from Germany and Austria.

The Twelfth Annual Joint Conference on Teacher Education, cosponsored by the CCTE and six of its member organizations, was held in St. Louis on the 26th of February. The general session in the morning and the eight discussion groups in the afternoon were well attended. The bimonthly *Newsletter* was distributed throughout the academic year to more than 5,000 readers.

COLLEGE STUDY IN INTERGROUP RELATIONS

The College Study in Intergroup Relations, Lloyd Allen Cook, director, concluded its four years' work on January 31, 1949.

Its only future contractual obligation is for the preparation and publication of a two-volume final report. The first volume will be descriptive of college programs, with each college reporting its intergroup work. The second volume will undertake an analysis of the general field of human relations in teacher education, using material from the College Study but not confining thought to this project.

During the year concluded January 31, 1949, ten colleges and universities had participated actively in the College Study. Eight of the remaining fourteen institutions in the study at some earlier period carried on the work on less than a fully active basis, that is, they conducted some part of their intergroup work with consultant help from our staff.

ACTIVE PARTICIPANTS IN THE COLLEGE STUDY, 1948-49

University of Florida	Colorado State College of Education,
Wayne University	Greeley
Atlanta University	Central Missouri State College,
New Jersey State Teachers College,	Warrensburg
Trenton	Lynchburg College, Virginia
Roosevelt College, Chicago	City College, New York
	West Virginia State College, Institute

Each of the ten institutions above has been visited at least three times, and several four times or more, if special workshops and conferences are counted. All these colleges and universities have received small grants, in addition to other kinds of material and technical assistance.

All colleges in the Study have prepared an over-all report on their one-to-four years of work, from 30 to 150 pages in length. With each college telling its own story, these materials should be a rich source of concrete and varied ideas, ideals, and practices, for all colleges, when published in book form.

While each college program continued to differ from any other, marked trends have been toward (a) doing better the projects rather hastily devised; (b) extending work to schools, state departments, and community agencies; (c) instituting "human relations" and "group dynamics" emphases in basic col-

lege courses; (d) including these emphases in permanent student records, ratings, course sequences, and the like.

Where affiliation with the College Study has been broken, or where campus work has lessened to the point of relative unimportance, causative factors have been unusually heavy teaching loads, changes in faculty personnel, and the press of more urgent college business. In one case only has there been administrative opposition to faculty committee work.

In only one instance during the year, in fact during the four years, has there been serious community hostility to any college study or activity. In this instance, centering on interracial relations, the campus group was forced to abandon an intercollege student visitation program. Due chiefly to the moral courage and good sense of the president in discussing college functions in interracial matters, the institution has won friends over the state and is in a stronger position today with its board and its public than it was before the incident.

College Study Battery "A" tests, a series of five special study instruments for use with college students, have been given in whole or in part by most colleges in the Study and by a large number of institutions not in the Study. Judging from a growing volume of use over the years, the circulation of College Study forms and materials should, somehow, be continued and, as heretofore, at cost.

Previous reports have outlined College Study history so that only brief summary is needed here.

During its four-year lifetime, the College Study has had twenty-four fully active participant colleges. Of these, eight have been in the Study for one year, ten for two years, three for three years, and three for the full four-year period. Peak number in any one year was in 1946, with twenty-one colleges in the program, on assumption that if need were demonstrated, adequate budget, personnel, and services could be obtained.

In the selection of colleges, principles outlined in February 1945 have been followed rigorously, the ideal being to obtain a sample of institutions representative of the entire nation. At no time has the Study been able to accept more than 10 percent of

the new applications, due to its limited staff and resources. This fact is, we believe, clear evidence of a present need which should be met.

After the first year, the Study staff has consisted of a half-time director, full-time associate, and secretary-typist. Over the four years, the budget grant from the National Conference of Christians and Jews has been a little more than \$100,000 with a portion of this amount earmarked for expenditures on final publications.

While detailed Study findings cannot be reported in brief space, especially the comprehensive testing programs carried on in several colleges, it is possible to suggest the general nature of College Study results and interpretations.

The human relations of any college, whatever its type and level, comprise the sum of social contacts within the school's total personnel and between these persons and its various publics. As this view grows in meaning and wins acceptance, the effect is to widen immeasurably the field of intergroup, or intercultural, education.

Intergroup problems, as a central aspect of human relations, vary the nation over, yet everywhere some people en masse are denied full participation in a way of life to which, in democratic ideology, they feel entitled. Such clashes in values, while not limited to specified areas, are most evident in the fields of race, creed, immigrant cultures, class level, and rural-urban cleavages.

The three most basic factors accounting for school and college inaction in high tensional areas of intergroup relations are teacher insecurity, administrative unconcern, and community pressure—a chain of cause-effect-cause relations that takes many concrete forms and for which the College Study has found no certain and easy corrective.

Smaller institutions, if alive and well integrated, can be more easily changed in major phases of their teacher-training program by the kinds of services provided in the College Study. Larger institutions are much less responsive, showing strong tendencies to use the help given to advance pre-existing interests.

Pre- and in-service teachers are products of their culture in

that they enter college with the ideas, attitudes, and experiences common to lower middle-class backgrounds and regional origins. Their mental content can be changed in democratic directions by short-term educative efforts, with small but known probabilities of carry-over into classroom practices and out-of-school actions. Informational changes are greater than attitudinal changes, with skill learnings the most difficult of all to make and stabilize.

Regardless of age level, an indirect approach to intergroup problems, with emphasis on some integrating concept such as participation, is better than a direct approach in democratizing learner behaviors and reducing intergroup tensions.

No college dare neglect campus culture and groupings as determinants of student behaviors. Changes here, while difficult to engineer, can be effected through group work methods in which students themselves take initiative, assisted and at times guided by faculty members who are skilled in leading a group through its own leaders.

Similarly, no college dare ignore its environing community—seat and center of prejudice and discrimination—for it is here that school-taught behaviors receive their final approval or condemnation.

College work in intergroup education cannot be made lasting, much less spread and deepened, by administrative pressures. It must be self-motivated on the part of a faculty, self-corrective, and valued as a professional responsibility. Best motivation comes from the selection of a problem of interest which seems possible of solution and where changes can be made by the group at work on the problem.

No one can teach unless someone learns, hence no teaching plan, no classroom, campus, or community project, can be rated as worth any more than its assessed value. Lack of interest in evaluation, and inability to evaluate, are widespread in intergroup education, thus a great handicap to significant progress. Prime need is for technical assistance in study-designing and test construction, plus a knowledge of newer computational statistics.

Educators can attain leadership in this field only by intelligent action. One cannot lead merely by "doing good," however

laudable such effort may be, or by merely adding up numbers of schools, bulletins, etc., but rather by breaking new trails and by solving at firsthand problems known to be holding up progress in human relations. It is these considerations which should help to define a new, larger, and better project in the field which we have explored.

Education with respect to teaching democracy through inter-group relations is a new field requiring courageous leadership.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON TEACHER EXAMINATIONS

For the past ten years the American Council on Education has been actively engaged in the improvement of teacher selection through its National Committee on Teacher Examinations, Roscoe L. West, chairman. The committee was first formed in 1939 for the purpose of conducting regular nation-wide programs of examinations for prospective teachers and to provide a clearinghouse of information on problems of teacher selection. Since that time it has sponsored annual testing projects and has, through conferences and publications, sought to improve national standards of teaching.

A major function of the committee has been a provision of information and practical assistance to school systems and colleges with respect to teacher selection procedures. An Advisory Service is maintained by the committee, and a bulletin, *The Selection of Teachers*, carrying announcements, summaries of research, suggestions, and notes, is distributed periodically to several thousand American educators.

On February 19 and 26, 1949, the National Committee on Teacher Examinations sponsored the tenth annual administration of the National Teacher Examinations, a battery of tests measuring the intellectual background and the cultural and professional knowledge of teachers.

As provided for in the recent merger of the Council's testing activities, the examination program was administered through the facilities of the Educational Testing Service.

The 1949 edition of the National Teacher Examinations was administered in 126 examining centers throughout the United

States. These examination centers were conducted in cooperation with (1) school systems and (2) colleges and universities engaged in teacher selection.

A total of 11,902 candidates applied to take the 1949 teacher examinations at the February administration of the tests. These candidates included persons taking the examinations as one of the requirements of their application to teach in a school system, students of education in colleges and universities, and teachers participating in the certification programs in the states of South Carolina and Florida. Approximately 1,100 candidates also were examined during the fiscal year 1948-49 in special administrations of the teacher examinations. The committee, through the Educational Testing Service, also prepared special examination materials for, and reported the results of their administration to, the Chicago Board of Education and the Long Beach (California) Board of Education.

In addition to the various administrative publications prepared in connection with the National Teacher Examinations program, several brochures describing the use of the examinations have been issued by the committee during the current year. These include; *The 1948 National Teacher Examination* (a summary report of activities of the American Council on Education's Committee on Teacher Examinations, including an analysis of the ninth annual Teacher Examination program); *The Use of National Teacher Examinations in Colleges and Universities* (revised); and *The Use of National Teacher Examinations in School Systems*.

Dr. David G. Ryans, formerly director of the Teacher Examination program, serves as secretary of the committee and liaison representative of the American Council on Education in the conduct of the regular examining program. Offices of the committee are maintained at the University of California at Los Angeles.

While the program of the National Teacher Examinations has shown a steady and gratifying growth during the ten years of its existence, it is not yet on a self-supporting basis. The income for the calendar year 1948 was \$54,830.61 and expenditures \$80,781.22. The fundamental difficulty is that owing to low

salary levels for teachers in most states of the Union, there is as yet no keen competition for teacher positions. Added to this fact has been, during the year just closing, the expense involved in the removal of test construction and administration activities from New York to Princeton. Finally, there is, of course, a special fee of 7.5 percent which is charged to this and all other projects by the Educational Testing Service for the support of research. As a result of this situation the Carnegie Corporation has recently made a grant of \$26,000 to the Council to cover the committee's deficit.

Naturally the Council cannot expect similar generosity in the future. Hence it will be necessary to find ways and means of adjusting the expenditure to the income. A special meeting of the committee is being called to consider the situation. I am confident that a solution to this problem can be found. It consists not only in the possible reduction of expenses but equally in the increasing of income through raising the fees for the examinations and particularly through extending the service to other state and local school systems. There are at present several promising possibilities of this kind.

NAVY SCIENTIFIC PERSONNEL ADVISORY COMMITTEE

The American Council on Education has continued its assistance to the Navy's program of basic and applied research on the problems connected with research and development workers who carry on the scientific and engineering projects related to national security and welfare. The Navy's program is being developed and coordinated under the guidance of a continuing committee, Dean E. G. Williamson of the University of Minnesota, chairman.

The members of this committee have shown their deep interest in the program by practically 100 percent attendance at the four meetings held during the past year.

Dr. Douglas E. Scates, formerly professor of education at Duke University, serves as research director of the committee's program. It is his duty to direct and coordinate the research projects which the Council carries on directly under its own

auspices or for which it has assumed responsibility by securing contractors.

Dr. Scates and his immediate staff are concerned primarily with two major studies. One concerns the problem of "In-service Graduate Education" of scientists and engineers. The other deals with the problem of "Scientists Resources," of the nation. These two studies, which started about January 1, 1948, are set up to continue through December 31, 1950.

The Council also is directly guiding several smaller projects, such as "The Study of Candidates Resulting from an Entering-Professional Grade Civil Service Examination," "The Production and Specializations of Ph.D.'s," "The Construction and Validation of Selection Tests for Research and Development Personnel," and "The Construction and Validation of Recommendation Forms for Scientists."

In addition, the Council has assisted the Office of Naval Research by entering into a contract with the American Institute for Research (University of Pittsburgh) to undertake a study of the "Characteristics of Productive Scientists." A report of this study has just been issued by the principal investigator, Dr. John C. Flanagan, under the title of "Critical Requirements for Research Personnel." The institute, on the basis of the results of the above study, is now proceeding with a study titled "The Development of Selection Instruments to Measure Aptitudes for Scientific Work."

Through similar arrangements with the University of Syracuse, Dean Paul H. Appleby is guiding two closely related studies:

1. Elements involved in the administration of scientific research and management of scientific personnel.
 - a) A study of experiences of successful administrators of scientific establishments, military, university, and industrial.
 - b) A comparison of the administrative processes used by scientist and nonscientist administrators.
 - c) An analysis of personnel management practices with emphasis on recruiting, terms of employment, and conditions of work.

- d) Interpretation and evaluation of the findings and preparation of recommendations for use in the Navy's management program.
- 2. Discovery, analysis, and interpretation of reasons scientists leave research organizations:
 - a) Patterns of reasons given for leaving research positions.
 - b) Relationships between decision to leave research positions and (1) age level; (2) science discipline; (3) type and nature of duties; and (4) supervisory and non-supervisory.

Both the Office of Naval Research and the Council regard this field of research as very important. The results of the research studies, while naturally valuable to and related to the Navy's program, will also be applicable to the educational program of American universities, particularly those universities that are responsible for developing and continuing the training of the nation's supply of scientists and engineers.

PACIFIC COAST COMMITTEE

Last year, as I related in my annual report, the Pacific Coast Committee, Lynn T. White, Jr., chairman, completed and the Council published *College-Age Population Study, 1947-64* for the five Western states, Arizona, California, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington. The committee is supporting a similar school-age population study under the direction of Kenneth R. Brown.

These very commendable activities were followed by a conference on higher education held at Berkeley, California, July 1, 2, and 3, under the auspices of the committee. The conference was attended by about sixty persons. It was my good fortune to be able to participate in a substantial portion of the conference.

The conference resolved itself into three working committees on Organization and Finance, Curriculum, and Student Personnel.

The recommendations of the three committees subsequently approved by the conference as a whole included the following:

1. That the American Council on Education bring to the attention of

the Rockefeller Foundation, in connection with its contemplated study on the financing of higher education, several suggestions including governmental grants similar to the system of Parliamentary grants in Great Britain; the possibility of federal grants to private institutions for the construction of buildings; federal loans; greater individual foundational and corporate giving to private institutions, and provisions for public scholarships available to students in both public and private institutions to be supported by both federal and state funds.

2. That there is need for (a) a study of academic and semiacademic group and institutional programs including specifically enterprises at the level of higher education operated by civil service, commercial, industrial, ecclesiastical, labor, military, and proprietor systems; (b) a study of the capacity of the economy to absorb the product of colleges and universities; (c) a bureau of educational statistics in the U. S. Office of Education to work in cooperation with the Bureau of Labor Statistics; (d) a study of the estimate of the President's Commission on Higher Education that 49 percent of the youth of the nation are capable of absorbing education through the fourteenth grade and 32 percent through the sixteenth grade; (e) a study of the social implications of substantially extending general educational opportunities beyond the high school.

3. That the five Western states promote and organize continuing studies cooperatively among themselves looking toward the solution of the problems of financing higher education at the state and local levels.

4. That inasmuch as the members of the conference believed that each state should work out its own pattern of organization, the conference expressed disagreement with the report of the President's Commission that in each state all levels and types of education be placed under the direction of a single department of education.

5. That universities give immediate and earnest consideration in their graduate schools to the responsibility of preparing college teachers better qualified to deal with the curricular problems of institutions of higher education.

6. That the American Council on Education be requested to set up facilities for the Pacific Coast Committee to assist educational institutions of the area in studying curricular problems, the preparation of college teachers, and similar problems affecting higher education.

7. That jointly with the secondary schools, state-wide testing, diagnostic, and supplementary counseling services be instituted in each of the Western states and so coordinated among the states that the data about all students will be comparable and available to all institutions.

8. That plans and techniques be developed for the selection, distribution and transition of students from high school to college, lower division or community college to upper division or specialized training; the college to the graduate or professional school; the point of termination of academic work into the first job.

9. That the Pacific Coast Committee urge the universities and colleges in this region to provide or expand facilities for recruiting and training individuals for personnel functions at all levels, including internships for graduate trainees and in-service training of faculty in personnel practices.

10. That the higher institutions of the Western states initiate or amplify the follow-up studies of both graduates and nongraduates as part of a process of continuing evaluation of the outcomes of a college education in terms of its service both to individuals and to society.

As will be clear immediately, the recommendations of the Pacific Coast Committee on higher education include a substantial program of activities both for the Council proper and for the Pacific Coast Committee in particular. The recommendations are, however, well founded and I hope may be given serious consideration.

Since the meeting of the conference on higher education at Berkeley, serious consideration has been given cooperatively with the California Association of Junior Colleges to the possibilities of a study of general education in the junior colleges of that state. As is well known, California has by far the largest number of junior colleges and junior college students of any state in the Union. Hence there seems ample justification for the conduct of such a study over a period of two or three years provided funds can be found to finance it.

THE PHARMACEUTICAL SURVEY

The study of American pharmacy—its educational system, practices, and services—began in May 1946 under the auspices of the Council is expected to be completed as of June 30, 1949. Dr. W. W. Charters has served as chairman of the committee which has been in general charge of the survey. Several of the reports have already been published by the Council. Certain other reports, especially those having to do with predictive and achievement testing of students, appeared first in *The American*

Journal of Pharmaceutical Education, and have been reprinted in separate volumes for publication by the Council as part of the Pharmaceutical Survey series.

The first of the principal results of this project appeared in November 1948 under the title *Findings and Recommendations of the Pharmaceutical Survey, 1948*. Here were presented the factual evidence and constructive proposals relating to eleven major areas of professional operation. These included the supply and demand for trained pharmacists, the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education, the teaching staffs of the colleges and schools of pharmacy, the selection, guidance, and testing of students, the organization and functions of the state boards of pharmacy, the financing of pharmaceutical education, the results of a comprehensive study of present-day prescriptions, the pharmaceutical curriculum, and the in-service training of pharmacists.

The over-all report of the survey, it is hoped, will be published during the coming summer.

Since last autumn the director of the survey, E. C. Elliott, formerly president of Purdue University, has been principally engaged in field work cooperation with the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education for the implementation of the recommendations of the survey, chiefly through the examination of colleges and schools of pharmacy for accreditation.

In this connection it is to be noted with satisfaction that the American Foundation for Pharmaceutical Education has already taken favorable action on one of the ranking recommendations of the survey by providing funds for the continuous operation of the American Council on Pharmaceutical Education.

While it is too soon to express any final judgments concerning the pharmaceutical survey, it is very clear that this project will prove to be one of the most successful undertaken by the American Council on Education. A further report will be made at the next annual meeting of the Council.

STUDY OF VETERANS ADMINISTRATION GUIDANCE CENTERS

The question has frequently been raised as to what provisions

colleges and universities will make for continuing the testing and guidance services that have been provided in a large number of colleges and universities through guidance centers operating under Veterans Administration contracts. With a view to securing information on this question, the Council arranged to undertake a special study of this subject. Data gathered from 154 institutions, or 63 percent of the 243 institutions contacted, have been summarized and have been sent to the cooperating institutions. The conclusions derived from this study cannot be included within the limits of this report. They have already been sent in summary form to the cooperating institutions, and will be published in several professional journals. It may be noted, however, that about four-fifths of the institutions report that they plan either to continue the center essentially as it has operated, or to offer the testing and counseling services in a centrally organized program. There is a general consensus among the institutions reporting that the Veterans Administration Guidance Centers have demonstrated their value so conclusively that the services which they provided must be continued in some form.

The Council is especially indebted to Dr. Mitchell Dreese, of George Washington University, for contributing his time to this study while on a quarter's leave of absence from his regular teaching and administrative responsibilities.

STUDY OF DISABLED VETERANS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

The Committee on Disabled Veterans in Colleges and Universities, E. G. Williamson, chairman, officially terminated its activities in June 1948. However, due to the interest aroused by the findings which were presented to groups interested in the problems of the disabled college veterans, the director of the study, Ralph J. Strom, has continued a considerable correspondence with numerous college administrators and personnel officials, professional workers in private and government organizations, and graduate students in various universities throughout the country.

Particular effort has been made by means of a series of Infor-

mation Bulletins and other reports to stimulate studies on the local campuses. The members of the committee considered this to be one of the important objectives of the study, feeling that such local studies would best focus attention on the particular needs of disabled students on each campus. Copies of the questionnaires and the interviewing schedules used have been distributed with reports of the preliminary findings of the nationwide sampling of veterans.

The committee is concluding its study with a comprehensive final report which will incorporate all of the findings of the various investigations made during the course of the study. The report will consider such areas as:

1. Purpose and Procedure of Study
2. Influence of GI Bill of Rights on College Attendance
3. Veteran's Evaluation of His College Training
4. Attitude toward Vocational Guidance Received
5. Financial Problems
6. Special Problems of Disabled Veterans
7. Participation in Extracurricular Activities
8. The Married Veteran
9. Placement
10. Conclusions and Recommendations

The report will be one of the most definitive statements of the experiences of the college veteran of World War II.

SURVEYS

The Council has currently under way three educational surveys that in some respects are unique and reflect a continuing interest in educational evaluation.

1. *Canton, Ohio.*—A citizens' committee of the city of Canton, Ohio, with the concurrence of the city school system, requested the Council to make a study of the local educational situation with a view to determining the advisability of establishing a program of postsecondary education. The conditions leading to this request were: (a) the possibility of acquiring by gift a large estate which would provide both a site and some buildings and facilities for a municipal institution of higher education;

and (b) the probability that the present extension center of Kent State University in Canton will be discontinued in the course of the next few years. Before launching a municipal college or university, the citizens and public school authorities want to know whether such an institution is needed to serve the local clientele, whether the proposed site is appropriate for the institution should the need be established, how operating costs may be met, under what administrative setup the institution should operate, and other related facts. The Council has welcomed the opportunity to make this special study, both because this undoubtedly represents a growing development in American education and because it represents an effort on the part of the citizens to view their local situation objectively. The Council was fortunate in securing the services of Dr. M. G. Neale of the University of Minnesota to direct the survey. He will be assisted by a number of consultants who are recognized authorities on special phases of the study. The cost of the survey is underwritten by the Timken Foundation of Canton.

2. *Navy School of Music.*—A survey is being made of the Navy School of Music in Washington, D. C. This project was undertaken at the request of the Navy for the purpose of securing an independent appraisal of the curriculum, teaching methods, personnel, and the internal organization and administration of the school. The special committee appointed to make the survey consists of Earl V. Moore, dean of the School of Music, University of Michigan, chairman; Roy D. Welch, chairman of the Department of Music, Princeton University; E. F. Goldman, conductor, the Goldman Band, New York City; and William Schumann, president, Juilliard School of Music.

3. *University of Massachusetts.*—A survey is being made of the University of Massachusetts at Fort Devens. This institution was organized to provide educational opportunities for veterans. Inasmuch as its operation will be discontinued at the end of the present academic year, it was considered desirable by the members of the administration that a study be made of its program and operation, particularly because it was felt that some aspects were unique in character and might have important

implications for higher education generally. The cost of the survey is underwritten by the university. The survey staff consists of M. M. Chambers, American Council on Education, secretary; Arthur J. Klein, dean of the School of Education (retired), Ohio State University, chairman; Algo D. Henderson, associate commissioner of education, New York State Education Department; and Clarence E. Partch, dean of the School of Education, Rutgers University.

TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS STUDY

The Teacher Characteristics Study is a new research project of the American Council on Education. It has been undertaken in an effort to determine those interests and qualities of temperament that characterize teachers who are regarded as being effective in their relationships with pupils.

The research has the two following major objectives:

1. *Identification of certain traits or qualities of successful teachers.* With the general purpose of developing a better understanding of the personality patterns of teachers, answers to such questions as the following are being sought: Do the personal qualities and interests of successful teachers fall into particular patterns? What is the nature of such patterns? Do the patterns characteristic of elementary and of secondary teachers differ? Are there differential patterns for other types of groupings of teachers?

2. *Development of measures of teacher interests and temperament.* In connection with the study of the patterns of personal qualities and interests of teachers, an effort will be made to develop instruments for measuring the extent to which a given individual possesses the patterns of personality and interests typical of successful teachers.

The Teacher Characteristics Study was first proposed early in 1947 and during the spring of that year a request was submitted to the Grant Foundation for a subvention to cover the cost. At their May, 1948, meeting the trustees of the Grant Foundation appropriated the sum of \$60,000 to be used by the American Council on Education to conduct the proposed research. It was

understood that the study would cover a three-year period and that \$20,000 of the funds would be made available each year, beginning in September 1948.

During the summer of 1948 the following members of a committee to advise the staff of the Teacher Characteristics Study were appointed: Dr. Robert C. Challman, Menninger Foundation; Professor G. Frederick Kuder, Duke University; Dr. Lester Nelson, Scarsdale Public Schools; Dean Willard B. Spalding, College of Education, University of Illinois; Professor L. L. Thurstone, University of Chicago; and President Roscoe L. West, New Jersey State Teachers College, Trenton. Dr. David G. Ryans was appointed director of the Teacher Characteristics Study.

Tentative plans for the research included: (1) conduct of a local (Los Angeles area) experimental study of the characteristics of criterion groups of teachers; (2) extension of procedures developed in the local experimental study to a larger area and to other samples of teachers; (3) provided the experimental results indicated their feasibility, the preparation and administration of group tests and inventories to assist in the identification of the personal qualities that contribute to good teaching.

In the first six months of the study major attention has been given to four areas of work: (1) the preparation of necessary rating scales for use in the identification of criterion groups of teachers; (2) the training of observers for classroom visitation and judgment of the effectiveness of teachers participating in the study; (3) the preparation of a comprehensive series of instruments including a number of objective tests of temperament, attitude questionnaires, autobiographical inventories, activity logs, interest questionnaires, and expressive and projective devices; (4) arranging with schools for their cooperation in the project.

Classroom observation for the purpose of assembling the criterion groups also has been begun, and a number of the instruments have undergone preliminary experimental use with small selected groups of subjects.

It seems quite evident that through this project the Council

has launched on an important enterprise looking to the further improvement of teacher education. It is equally evident that the results obtained from this study may have important implications for other fields of work where similar characteristics of personnel may be required.

CONCLUSION

To direct the work of the American Council on Education is a privilege I have enjoyed these fifteen years. Whatever success it has attained during this past year is certainly not due to the efforts of any one person. It is a great cooperative enterprise which enlists the combined efforts of the entire staff and the numerous committees whose services have uniformly been both loyal and effective.

Yet each year brings its problems in American education. There is much and there will always be much for the American Council to do. I trust therefore that all of us may have both the energy and the foresight to meet these opportunities and responsibilities.

GEORGE F. ZOOK

May 6, 1949

APPENDIX

Publications

American Council on Education

May 1948–May 1949

Psychological Examinations for College Freshmen, 1947 Norms

By L. L. Thurstone and Thelma Gwinn Thurstone. 23 pp. June 1948. 25¢.

General Education in the Social Studies

By Albert William Levi. Cooperative Study in General Education. 337 pp. June 1948. \$3.50.

Textbook Improvement and International Understanding

By I. James Quillen. Committee on International Education and Cultural Relations of the American Council on Education and the United States National Commission for UNESCO. June 1948. 78 pp. \$1.00.

Educational Lessons from Wartime Training

By Alonzo G. Grace and Members of the Staff. General Report of the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs. August 1948. 265 pp. \$3.00.

Wartime College Training Programs of the Armed Services

By Henry C. Herge, et al. Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs. August 1948. 214 pp. \$3.00.

Chinese Ideas in the West

By Derk Bodde. Committee on Asiatic Studies in American Education. September 1948. 42 pp. 50¢.

For a Career Service in Social Security

A Progress Report of the Committee on Education and Social Security, Karl de Schweinitz, director. August 1948. 23 pp. Free.

USAFI, Section 1A from A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services, 1948

Revised, September 1948. 47pp. 25¢.

Findings and Recommendations of the Pharmaceutical Survey, 1948

The Committee on the Pharmaceutical Survey, Edward C. Elliott, director. November 1948. 49 pp. \$1.00.

Sociometry in Group Relations: A Work Guide for Teachers

By Helen Hall Jennings, et al. Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools. November 1948. 85 pp. \$1.25.

The Educational Clinic

By Laurence D. Haskew for the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. January 1949. 51 pp. \$1.00.

Student Personnel Services in General Education

By Paul J. Brouwer. Cooperative Study in General Education. January 1949. 317 pp. \$3.50.

Wanted: 30,000 Instructors for Community Colleges

Prepared for the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. February 1949. 51 pp. \$1.00.

Intergroup Relations in Teaching Materials: A Survey and Appraisal

Report of the Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials in Intergroup Relations, Howard E. Wilson, director. March 1949. 231 pp. \$3.00.

Curriculum in Intergroup Relations: Secondary School

By the Staff of Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools, Hilda Taba, director. March 1949. 168 pp. \$1.25.

The Prescription Study of the Pharmaceutical Survey

By J. Solon Mordell. March 1949. 278 pp. \$7.50.

Student Personnel Studies of the Pharmaceutical Survey

By H. H. Remmers and N. L. Gage. Reprinted from the January issue of the *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*. April 1949. 126 pp. \$1.25.

Accreditation Policies of State Departments of Education for the Evaluation of Service Experiences and USAFI Examinations

Revised April 1949. Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences. Free.

Factors Affecting the Admission of High School Seniors to College

A report of Elmo Roper for the Committee on a Study of Discriminations in College Admissions. April 1949. 396 pp. \$3.50.

On Getting into College

Committee on Discriminations in College Admissions. May 1949. 99 pp. \$1.00.

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION STUDIES

Some Current Issues in Education

Edited by Francis J. Brown and J. Roland Kufus. Series I, No. 31. July 1948. 22 pp. 30¢.

Things to Consider in Planning Educational Plants

By the Committee on Educational Buildings and Equipment. Series VII, No. 4. August 1948. 13 pp. 25¢.

Goals for Higher Education in the Pacific Coast States

Pacific Coast Committee. Series I, No. 33. September 1948. 22 pp. 30¢.

Exploring Individual Differences

Report of the 1947 Invitational Conference on Testing Problems. Series I, No. 32. October 1948. 110 pp. \$1.50.

The Teacher as Counselor

By Donald J. Shank, *et al.* Committee on Student Personnel Work. Series VI, No. 10. November 1948. 48 pp. 75¢.

Graduate Training for Educational Personnel Work

By Corinne LaBarre. Committee on Student Personnel Work. Series VI, No. 11. November 1948. 54 pp. \$1.00.

Improving the National Leadership for Teacher Education

By Laurence D. Haskew. Committee on Teacher Education. Series I, No. 34. January 1949. 20 pp. 50¢.

Helping Students Find Employment

By Forrest H. Kirkpatrick, *et al.* Committee on Student Personnel Work. Series VI, No. 12. March 1949. 37 pp. 75¢.

Education for the Preservation of Democracy

Report of the Thirteenth Educational Conference, 1948. Series I, No. 35. April 1949. 112 pp. \$1.50.

Planning Films for Schools

The Final Report of the Commission on Motion Pictures, Mark A. May, chairman. Series I, No. 36. May 1949. 36 pp. 50¢.

PERIODICALS AND INSTITUTIONAL PAMPHLETS

Members of the American Council on Education

Annual revision. December 1948. Free.

A Brief Statement of the History and Activities of the American Council on Education, 1948-49

Annual revision. December 1948. Free.

The Educational Record

Quarterly journal of the Council. July, October, 1948; January, April, 1949.

Higher Education and National Affairs

Bulletins Nos. 126 through 138, plus 1 supplement.

SPONSORED BY THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
BUT ISSUED BY OTHER PUBLISHERS

College Reading and Religion

A survey sponsored by the Edward W. Hazen Foundation and the Committee on Religion and Education of the American Council on Education. Published by Yale University Press. 345 pp. Fall 1948. \$5.00.

A Syllabus for a Collegiate Course in Aviation for Elementary Teachers

Published by the Civil Aeronautics Administration. Fall 1948.

The Growth of Peaceful Settlement between Canada and the United States

By George W. Brown. Published in Canada by the Canada-United States Committee on Education.

REPRINTINGS

Literature for Human Understanding

By Hilda Taba. Second printing, 3,000.

Children of Bondage

By Allison Davis and John Dollard. Sixth printing, 2,000.

Emotion and the Educative Process

By Daniel A. Prescott. Seventh printing, 1,000.

Youth and the Future

Third printing, 1,000.

American Junior Colleges

Edited by Jesse P. Bogue. Second printing, 2,000.

Educational Counseling of College Students

By Helen D. Bragdon, A. J. Brumbaugh, Basil H. Pillard, and E. G. Williamson. Third printing, 1,000.

Teachers for Our Times

Commission on Teacher Education. Fourth printing, 2,000.

Focus on Learning

By Charles F. Hoban, Jr. Report of the evaluation program of the Motion Picture Project. Fourth printing, 1,000.

Social Competence and College Students

By Esther Lloyd-Jones. Fourth printing, 1,000.

Wanted: A Job!

Second printing, 4,000.

Factors Affecting the Admission of High School Seniors to College

Second printing, 1,000.

The Superintendent Looks at Research¹

By HEROLD C. HUNT

HISTORICALLY SPEAKING, research has served the superintendent of schools for a long, long time. Nearly a quarter of a century ago Walter Monroe in his article "Service of Educational Research to School Administrators," which appeared in the April 1925 issue of the *American School Board Journal*, discussed the service of research to the school superintendent and principals in terms of reduction of school costs, increased educational efficiency, measurement of achievement, and other positive values of educational research. He suggested, however, that the collection and statistical treatment of facts will not serve as a substitute for real thinking, and the conclusion is thus drawn that the greatest service of educational research is through promoting clearer and more critical thinking about educational problems. From such definition it appears that in research lies the foundation—the basis—of effective administration. Educational administration has developed as a result of research, and only insofar as research provides the framework for the school program as it emerges, takes shape, and progresses will that program continue its pattern of advancement.

As the superintendent looks at research, he sees in it, therefore, the means of carrying on an educational program. As a result of research the program is what it is; through research the curriculum, the methods, and the entire operation of the program may be continuously evaluated to determine their efficiency; by means of research, ways and means are being determined for the improvement of procedures leading to the more effective meeting of needs. Historical, evaluative, and prognostic, therefore, is the value of research to the school administrator. And as he recognizes and relies upon research studies in all three avenues,

¹ Address given before the Annual Meeting of the American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., May 6, 1949.

so will the program he administers better serve the objectives of the administration.

But let us explore these three avenues of assistance. Historically, we have indicated present programs have evolved from research studies that have charted new patterns as a result of determination of trends and comparing and appraising results.

In the area of reading, for example, an examination of the factors that have contributed to present practice in the teaching of reading discloses the significant steps that have led to present-day procedure. These factors, further, evidence the influence of research in child development and in concepts of the learning process.

From the days of the *New England Primer*, first published in 1683, with its wooden cover and its emphasis on the alphabet, the Scriptures, and a moralistic tone, through the hornbook in its more appealing variations, Noah Webster's *Blue-back Speller*, John Pierpont's readers which dared to include materials by American writers, and Lyman Cobb's graded readers, to those most famous best-selling readers by William Holmes McGuffey, research in reading techniques contributed to the development of these books which have played so important a role in educational history. Research had indicated that delineation of commendable traits of character provided a popular emphasis in reading textbooks, and the fundamentals of the McGuffey Readers—truth, honesty, fair dealing, initiative, inventiveness, self-reliance, and other comparable attributes—contributed in large measure to the success of these readers. These popular books not only determined attitudes but also shaped literary tastes for the millions who in the period 1836 to 1920 acquired much reading skill through use of them.

Research in mechanical make-up of textbooks contributed to improvement in this area around the turn of the century. Type style was adjusted for ease in reading, and basic vocabularies of sight words were introduced for mastery prior to the beginning of the study of phonetics. Research further determined the value of meaningful story material in the development of reading

habits and skills and of basic reading concepts. Developed through careful and painstaking research, the reading textbook is today a pleasingly designed, attractively illustrated, interesting, and enjoyable book which acquaints girls and boys with a number of well-written stories. In like manner has reading instruction developed from the alphabet method, through the word and then the phonic and the phonetic methods to the phrase, sentence, and story approaches. Continuing research has led to the present-day "comprehensive program of reading instruction which develops habits that underlie accurate recognition, speed, and comprehension—in silent reading and fluent oral reading. Equally, if not more, important is the need for the development and refinement of habits of interpretation, critical evaluation, and the application of the facts apprehended."² In line with this basis of reading instruction is the emphasis upon the selection and use of materials that are close to the child's own experiences as his interests and needs change.

Just as research has developed methods and materials in reading, so has it improved arithmetic teaching. Because arithmetic has always been a difficult subject for teachers and pupils alike, through the years various schemes and programs have been worked out which have served to assist over one or another rough spot. A comprehensive research study in the area, undertaken in the Chicago public schools, can be cited as an example of how careful research can build a program which will surmount everyday obstacles. Early in 1945, Chicago's seven thousand elementary classroom teachers were asked to report difficulties which they encountered in teaching children the various arithmetic concepts. From the numerous replies received from more than three hundred schools, twenty-nine chief difficulties were recorded. A list of these difficulties was then sent to all teachers, with a request that those who had developed techniques successful in overcoming particular ones of these difficulties describe them.

² *The Teaching of Reading; A Second Report*, The Thirty-Sixth Yearbook, Part I of the National Society for the Study of Education (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1937), p. 28.

From the more than thirteen hundred which were submitted by 1,145 teachers, a "blue ribbon jury" of twenty-seven expert arithmetic teachers culled 349 "successful techniques." These were then organized by grade levels, classified according to the twenty-nine difficulties, and compiled into a professional book which has been distributed to Chicago elementary schools as a challenge to improve the quality of arithmetic instruction. The book, called *Arithmetic Teaching Techniques*, consists of 355 pages which include 87 illustrations usable for copying on the blackboard. The techniques range from beginning quantitative concepts at kindergarten level to problem-solving at the eighth-grade level. One chapter is devoted to a report on the nature of problem-solving. As a result of the research which has made possible this helpful volume, it seems likely that methods of teaching arithmetic, particularly in troublesome areas, will undergo widespread revision.

Handwriting is another area in which research has led to the development of the present-day accepted program. Studies have shown that manuscript writing, being more like the printed material which the six-year-old is endeavoring to read, is preferable for the beginner. For older children and adults, however, cursive writing is accomplished with greater ease and rapidity. A transition must therefore be made, and research has indicated the optimum time for such transition to be in the third grade—before the writing habit is so firmly fixed as to make the change-over difficult.

In the area of reporting pupil progress much research has been carried on and constantly in many school districts is the practice being studied with a view to perfecting and refining the technique. One school system, which appointed a committee of principals and teachers to study the situation in professional literature and in current practice, has developed, as a result, several forms of its report card so that each can be more precisely accurate for the grade level on which it is used. After careful study of many marking systems this committee determined upon and adopted a code to represent the varying degrees of achievement and to pro-

vide a goal and a challenge for pupils. The report rates pupil accomplishment, further, in all areas of the curriculum and also in social habits, work and study habits, and in health and safety habits. And, in addition, the report invites parents' suggestions and thus provides for a more democratic home-school relationship.

Behavior studies have led to improvements in teaching methods which have yielded greater accomplishment on the part of the pupil. These studies have traced changes in behavior which have resulted from planned learning programs, and they have also measured the degree of confidence gained by the pupil as a result of the new pattern. This is an area, however, in which much more research must be carried on, leading to the determination of more effective ways of developing the kind of behavior that will yield optimum results and benefit.

The organization of the public school and the public school system today is the result of constant and continuing research in that area, too. Our program of elementary and secondary education has developed because of experiment and study into the efficacy of various programs. The relative merits of the 8-4, the 6-3-3, the 6-6, the 7-5, and other organizational plans are being studied and debated today as a result of the research that led to the introduction of the various setups and of the trial which is demonstrating their effectiveness in the face of changing population, enrollment acceleration, and relative costs. The desirability of upward and downward extension of the traditional program has been demonstrated through research; the widespread application of the findings here rests primarily on the question of financial resources.

Within every organizational pattern, further, is evidence of research in dealing with specialized problems. Ability groups, departmentalization, ungraded and remedial classes, organizations to permit use of special services and equipment—all have developed as a result of research into the learning process, and all are provided in accordance with acquaintance on the part of the staff with research findings and also with the ability of the school to finance the program. Research has also pointed out

optimum conditions in scheduling the school day and the school year, in size of classes and size of schools. Here, again, current practice is dictated by the weighing of the relative merits against the financial resources which must be spread to serve the greatest needs.

As the superintendent looks at research, one of its most important attributes for his own administration is the evaluation which it permits. Through research studies which are currently carried on and through those which have been built up over the years, the superintendent is able to appraise the program for which he has responsibility and determine the direction it should point. Financial studies, such as those made by the Research Division of the National Education Association, the reports issued periodically by the United States Office of Education, and other cost and comparison surveys made and distributed by research agencies and individual research workers provide valuable data for comparing what is being done in any one school or school system with practices on a national or geographical level or, for that matter, on an accepted or a progressive basis, educationally speaking. The results of research used in appraisal may yield satisfaction for what is being done, or they may furnish justification for what is proposed to remedy or advance the program. Studies of percentage of costs attributable to the various phases of the program—teaching, supervision, administration, plant operation, maintenance, auxiliary services, and so on, permit further analysis of expenditures to effect a balanced ratio. If costs as indicated in research studies are lower than the average, the superintendent can conscientiously propose extension of desirable services or other improvements. If they are above the average, and the community seems to feel it is being too heavily taxed for educational purposes, there is reason for the introduction of economies that may find reflection in limitation of opportunities but will also serve to lower the total budget.

Research studies of salaries likewise provide a basis for evaluation of the local schedule. Comparison of a school system's salary schedule with national averages in education and in other

fields of endeavor permits determination of the wisdom of providing increases which may be sought by teachers. In a similar manner, research studies on class size and teacher load provide material for evaluation of teachers' working conditions.

When it comes to evaluation of the accomplishment of the educational program which he is administering, the superintendent again looks to research. Test norms which have been set up on a national basis as a result of extensive country-wide activity provide effective criteria for acknowledging the superiority or inferiority of the local educational product.

In the construction of school buildings, too, has research played an important part. Development of standards for size of classrooms, height of ceilings, foot-candles of light, location of blackboards and bulletin boards, wall color, and many other pertinent factors have resulted from extensive research done cooperatively by architects and school personnel. Trends in school housing have become evident, and the superintendent has a wealth of data and specifications at his disposal to assist him in locating sites and in planning buildings to meet local or specialized needs.

In educational legislation, too, is research assisting in the development of programs. Studies of activity in this area by states and municipalities afford a basis for initiating measures designed to place the financial structure on a more equitable basis, to organize school districts or administrative units more effectively, to establish or improve pension and retirement systems, provide for teacher tenure, and institute other desired or desirable improvements. Research studies have been made in all of these areas and many others, all of which can be made to serve as an evaluative technique in promulgating and embarking upon new programs or extending or perfecting programs in current operation.

With the evidence of research in developing the educational program of today and its use in evaluating present accomplishment, the superintendent may look ahead to appraise further his efforts and determine how research may be made to shape future efforts. Actually, in innumerable schools and classrooms, studies are under way which will contribute to tomorrow's educational program. The implications of changing conditions of

society and social relationships have necessitated new emphasis throughout the curriculum. To adopt programs and courses of study to meet the needs of such changes, the so-called "curriculum council" has come into popular existence. Beginning, generally, with the formulation of a statement of philosophy which the total curriculum will reflect, the council then examines the scope and content of presently used materials and from these develops patterns and programs to meet recognized needs as represented in the state philosophy.

Present-day curriculum research is finding reflection especially in the area of the social studies. It is becoming increasingly clear that the world's great problems are not technological but are, rather, problems of human relationships—and with the practical annihilation of distance, the human element is extended to all humanity. Study of understanding and improvement in inter-group relations is providing a further basis for effective social studies programs.

Health and safety are likewise fields in which extensive present-day research is shaping current and future programs. Enthusiasm for the study is predicated on the recognition that no education is so wasteful as that which, through preventable illness or accident, is not permitted to be realized in the growth of the pupil to maturity.

Television, perhaps, has spurred interest in research activity in the visual education field. The possibilities of that true combination of audio and visual aids, which permits actual experience in "history in the making," are almost unlimited toward the advancement of the educational program.

The prevalence of comic books and their possible connection with juvenile delinquency is another area meriting widespread study. Research in this field has progressed to the point where it is definitely recognized that "banning" is not the solution, but that, on the other hand, the techniques of these devices may be applied helpfully and constructively into effective channels.

Offering a secondary school education that will meet the needs of the approximately 60 percent of today's high school students who neither go on to college nor find employment in the skilled

trades is the area meriting the most intensive study on the part of all of us today. The development of a comprehensive life-adjustment education program which will serve adequately more than half of the girls and boys who enter our high schools is, indeed, the concern of every administrator. Initial research has indicated the efficacy of a secondary school program which includes, first, study of English, with emphasis on good usage and on interpretation; second, the meaning, understanding, and practice of citizenship; third, health knowledge and application; and fourth, grasp of a number of the so-called "practical" subjects including consumer education, typing, child care, home mechanics, cooking, sewing, budgeting and money management, and other areas in which these large numbers are involved in their life beyond the school. Speed and concentration must characterize study in this area to crystallize plans and permit formulation and introduction of effective programs.

Thus does the superintendent look at research. He views it historically, evaluatively, and prognostically. He perceives it as more than a partner of administration, for research provides both the foundation and the structure of the edifice. Research has pointed the way for the development of present-day programs and practices, it furnishes the information and the data by which the effectiveness of current educational procedures may be judged, and it determines the direction which tomorrow's offering will take by permitting the experimental introduction of forward-looking activities today. Research means progress; it symbolizes advancement. As such, the superintendent views it as the most important asset to successful administration.

Education in the Congress¹

By ROBERT A. TAFT

MY SUBJECT, "Education in the Congress," is rather a broad subject, because, while we have had our attention centered for a week on the federal aid to primary and secondary schools, many of our activities, of course, have to do with education. The idea that the federal government is, for the first time, taking an interest and a step into education is a very mistaken one on the part of the general public and a good many of the congressmen and senators who do not realize that the federal government has always been concerned with education, from the days that the provisions were made in the public land bills that one or two sections in every township should be set aside in aid of education. It has generally assisted the cause of education down through the last 150 years. The land-grant colleges are an outstanding instance of this assistance.

In a broader way the federal government has also, for a long time, conceived of education as one of its main concerns. It has initiated many research programs. In the whole field of agriculture, of course, it has assumed the leadership with respect to agricultural research, which, after all, leads to no end except the education of the farmer.

It has assumed the job usually in fields where others have not entered and has tried to stimulate interest in those fields. I saw yesterday a statement of the amount of money being spent today on research activities through the federal government. I think it amounts to something like a billion and a quarter dollars a year on different kinds of research activities. Some of them may not be educational in the sense that they are directed toward military activity, which perhaps educators are not so directly interested in. However, in the Atomic Energy Commission

¹ Address given before the Annual Meeting of the American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., May 6, 1949.

alone, they are spending 250 to 300 million dollars a year on strictly research activities for the most part, which they hope will assist civilian progress rather than military progress. In many other fields research grants are wide and extensive. This year we passed in the Senate—and it is now before the House—the National Science Foundation bill, which sets up a board to dispense research grants in all fields of scientific activities. The board will assume a kind of over-all guidance or planning of those activities. The board will consist of twenty-four members. As you know, there will also be a research director. It is intended that the foundation shall receive authority from the Army and Navy and other agencies that are given money for specific purposes to make the over-all distribution of such money to private, state, and other institutions that may be well fitted to carry out research activities.

The National Science Foundation bill was passed once, vetoed by the President, the question being whether the money should be primarily controlled by this board of twenty-four scientists or by a director appointed by the President to dispense the money. I felt very strongly that the President should not have control of the disposition of the money because, if he did, it would go back to a political basis. I know how senators and congressmen feel, and, if there were a fund at the disposition of a political government, the pressure for every district to get its share, whether it is qualified or not qualified to do the work, would be so great that it would be almost certain to prevail.

We reached a compromise in the Senate with the President, and I think it is a reasonable one. The director of the foundation is to be appointed by the President, but the board must pass on the disposition of all funds. The last word as to where the money goes and what kind of plans are adopted rests with a board of twenty-four scientists with very real power.

We have an interesting field of federal aid to education before us today in all the health bills. Of course, a great deal of the research today relates to medical conditions and health. We have before us large grants for research in specific fields such as cancer, heart disease, mental disease, venereal disease, and

various other special investigatory processes, some of which are conducted by the federal government itself while others are assigned to other research institutions, a plan which duplicates the National Science Foundation idea. Perhaps, if that is once set up, the whole thing can be coordinated under one over-all direction.

We have before us, specifically, at the present time, the question of aid to medical schools. One of the problems in health is to get enough doctors, and medical school education is so extremely expensive that the number of doctors who can be educated today is very limited indeed. Everyone agrees that there should be a substantial increase in the number of doctors who are educated on a proper basis.

On that problem we are going to have hearings, and I do not know that I can yet reasonably express an opinion. There are several bills proposed which provide for straight grants to medical schools. I think the cost of educating a doctor is estimated at about \$2,500 a year per man. That means \$10,000 in four years, to say nothing of graduate teaching. The schools get about \$600 a year in tuition. Most of the schools have a very hard time to make up the balances from their various kinds of funds—including investment funds, which do not bring in as much money as they once did. I do not know exactly what policy we may finally adopt, but it is certainly a very hot question before Congress and is dealt with in each one of the various conflicting general health bills which are now before Congress.

Of course, the thing that I have been the most interested in, and the thing Congress has been most concerned with, is the federal aid for primary and secondary education. To a certain extent it represents a departure in federal policy, because the primary and secondary education systems have always been the concern of the states and local governments. Sometimes I am confusing when I speak about the state. I do not mean the state. I mean the combination of the state and local governments.

Some states have more state activities, and other states have more local autonomy. Some states have more funds than others, and others have more local funds. The two are really a combi-

nation. They have always been taking care of education, however. It has always been their principal concern.

On primary and secondary education, they are spending today over 3 billion dollars. We might point out that nearly a third of the total state revenues of 14 billion dollars is spent directly or indirectly on education.

Most of the state tax systems are set up with education as one of their main purposes. In Ohio, at least, education has usually had a priority over other local and state demands, although there was always a battle between conflicting interests for rather limited supplies of state funds compared to the present demands on states.

Nevertheless, education has certainly been ahead of health in the interests of the states. It has been far ahead of housing. They have done a more complete and better job in education than in any other field.

Primary and secondary education is characterized by another great difference between it and other public welfare activities, because we socialized primary and secondary education. We socialized education over a hundred years ago. We made it a government function to provide free education to all children in primary school, and gradually that was extended through all the secondary schools. There is, therefore, no fundamental question of socialization involved, as there is in the question of whether we are going to adopt the President's health insurance program, where you take a service which has never been socialized and propose that it be socialized, providing free medical service to all the people in the United States whether they can pay for it or not. That is not involved in primary and secondary education, because we have done it on the state and local levels.

The bill which we propose is aimed primarily at the assistance of states that cannot help themselves. There is a \$5.00 grant per pupil to every state, but the main purpose of the bill is to afford something like an equality of opportunity for children, even though they are born in poor states or poor districts.

As you know, the formula is roughly that every state must levy 2 percent of the income of its people—that means the gross income of all the people individually in the state. That is about as good a test of the ability to pay taxes and of the wealth in the state as any test you can get. We say every state must levy 2 percent of the income of its people in its own localities and districts for educational purposes. The total the states levy for all purposes is in the neighborhood of 6 or 6½ percent of the income. Two percent must go to education if they are to get state aid. We then take half of that and, if 1 percent will not provide \$55 per child throughout the state on a census basis, then the federal government makes up the difference. With half, in effect, of their state revenues, for education, plus the federal monies, they have \$55 per child. Then they have the other half, or 1 percent, of their state revenue left to provide a better education than \$55 per child.

We had to leave some leeway in there because, obviously, in every state there must be a tremendous difference between the cost of education in rural and urban districts, and we did not want to force any state, through federal aid, to cut down on the character of education which it was giving in its more expensive districts—its urban districts—in order to make up the difference at the bottom. The federal government proposes to make that up. Fifty-five dollars is a low rate, but it will mean an average income per child, in the poorer states, about twice that altogether. The lowest district must be \$55.

Probably most of the money will be given to the Southern states for the present. Most of their money will have to be devoted to bringing up their colored schools to the \$55 level, because it is required that every school district get at least \$55 a child, and, if there is a separation of white and colored, each must get at least \$55 per child.

We hope later we may be able to increase that standard, when we get up to that point; but the average for colored schools in the Southern states is below that figure. In Mississippi, the lowest state, the average for all schools is about \$55, almost exactly; but throughout most of the Southern states, except

North Carolina, the average for colored schools is below that limit. This money will have to be used to bring up the level.

There are some districts in other states that fall below that limit which can be assisted.

The purpose, therefore, is primarily an equalization fund. We provide that every state shall get no less than \$55 per child, but most of the money goes to the poorest states. It goes distinctly on the theory that what we are interested in from a federal government standpoint is that there shall cease to be illiteracy in the United States, and we shall give, as far as possible, an equality of opportunity to all the children in every state, regardless of how poor the district into which they may be born. At least, an education will bring them to a point where somebody has some idea of their qualifications and where they have some idea of their opportunities, because, obviously, if a boy cannot get even to the point of reading and writing, he does not know what his opportunities are.

I think we ought to do, finally, a better job, and I think we can. It is not an easy thing to improve the schools all over the country. I question, even if we had the money, whether we ought to try to put more in them than we are doing. If it is going to be effective, there will have to be a careful study. I think your Council can help materially in seeing that the money is applied, and those systems are built up, in a way that will make them effective, because I realize that money is not the only criterion of education. It is the only one we can lay hold of in Congress, but there are many other contradictory criteria, and it is the job of each state to bring up the type of its education.

We had some discussions in the Congress in the debate that we ought to have certain standards of education imposed by the federal government. Standards in education are very vague. That brings us also to the main objective, the main fight, against federal aid to education, the fear that it will give the federal government power to direct education throughout the nation.

I think nearly everyone that I know is very strongly opposed to such federal control. They look back at various totalitarian states and see where it ultimately reached in those regimes. In

Germany, Hitler really changed the nature almost of the German people through his very determined control and direction of education from Berlin.

Probably we do not face anything so extreme, yet we do not want to get to a point where the ideology of education or the ideologies taught in education are in any way directed from a central government. I think the people of our states and communities feel very strongly that they want to determine how their children shall be brought up. If we are going to have freedom in this country, I think that the power of the states and the local governments to conduct and control that essential activity, as well as a good many other matters well within their power, should be retained.

What we are interested in simply is to see that those states can do their job. We are not interested in telling them how to do it. Maybe they will do it poorly. Maybe the federal government will not be so pleased with the standards in one state. Maybe we are going to fall down in education in some states. But my experience with general federal operations of any sort is that there is just as likely to be failure there as among the states. When the federal authorities make a mistake, it is a mistake that extends to 140 million people.

So, when you argue it out, even with the best possible planners in Washington, I do not believe you will get a better plan, although, no doubt, under the complete local autonomy of every state, there will be some states that do not do their job as they ought to do it.

We prohibit any federal interference. The funds are allocated on a basis which gives more money to the poorer states. The state gets the money. The only federal interest is one of seeing that it is used for education. We are interested in seeing that it reaches education.

We are also interested in seeing that every school and every school district in the state gets at least \$55 per child for the conduct of those schools. That is largely an audit proposition. In most instances where there has been trouble with the federal aid programs, the bills have usually been drawn to give a great

deal of discretion to the federal officer. In other words, he can say, in effect, to the states, "If you do not run your administration this way, you won't get any federal money."

There have been some federal bureaus inclined to go in and tell the state how it should run its operations. I am not talking about education; I am talking about the various state-aid fields. If the federal officer has that discretion, the temptation to use it is very great indeed.

There is no discretion in this bill. The bill is strictly an audit proposition. You send in somebody to find out if the money has been spent, and you find out whether it has gone to these schools, and that is the limit of the federal power.

It is, therefore, up to the states and the educators to see that each state does a good job with that money. It is also up to the people of the state to see that is done.

I think we have to assume that the self-governing people of the state are interested in providing a proper education. If the authorities begin to fall down, some public resentment will arise which will result in improvements in that state.

So the first objection, as I say, to this whole thing, which was raised in the very vigorous speeches against the bill, was against federal control. This bill has expressed provisions against control in every way. I think we must recognize this, and I hope you gentlemen will fight against the objection, as I propose to do.

Once the federal government—and this was the most effective argument made against the bill—makes a state dependent upon the federal funds, then the federal government may begin to impose controls. One of the worst offenders may be Congress itself. Someone comes along with a prohibition in the form of a rider to the appropriation saying that the money shall not go to a state if that state teaches communism, let us say, in the public schools, or if that state does not teach an hour of American history. Those are desirable purposes and probably are popular with Congress, and it is easy to hitch on that kind of condition; once you do that, there is no stopping, and you also encourage the federal bureaus to go out and impose their conditions.

I think I ought to say this: In the field of education there has

been less tendency on the part of the federal government, as far as I can discover, to dictate to the people who get the assistance than in almost any other field. The tradition of the federal Office of Education has been to work through the state departments of education—a tradition of noninterference with state activities, which I trust will continue.

Amendments offered to this bill show how we may very easily get into federal control if we are not constantly on our guard against it. Two amendments dealt with teachers' salaries: one provided that no money could go to a state unless each teacher received a minimum annual salary of \$2,850; the other would require that 25 percent of the federal appropriation be used for teachers' salaries. Both of these amendments would interfere directly with state administration—they would take away from the state the power to determine how it is going to conduct its educational system.

Another group of amendments bring up the religious issue. The amendments relating to the transportation of pupils are good examples of possible federal interference. One—it might be called the Catholic amendment—would compel a state to allocate money for bus transportation of *all* pupils, even though the state constitution might prohibit it. That amendment was defeated by a voice vote. Another, presented by Senator Donnell, provided that even though a state does dispense money for bus transportation to parochial schools, it could not use federal money for that purpose, under any circumstances. That was defeated; I think it got three votes.

The bill says that if the state uses its own money for bus transportation of all pupils, it may use federal money for it. If the law and constitution of the state prohibit it from using its own funds for that purpose, it cannot use federal money for it.

As you know, these amendments have involved a battle between the parochial schools and the public schools—between the Catholics as a group and the people of the state as a whole. The Supreme Court has held that no state can give any money to parochial schools for the conduct or assistance of education. It has held, in a rather tentative way, that money may be

given for bus transportation of children to parochial schools. There are a few states that give money for bus transportation to parochial schools out of their own funds. What the bill says is that the federal money may be used for any purpose that the state money is used for under the law and constitution of the state and the Constitution of the federal government.

We have tried to say that this is a state matter. Fight it out at each state level. Let the state decide what to do about it within, of course, the limits of the federal Constitution.

In that whole field, we stood again on the basic principle that we are not going to interfere with the administration of each state. I think it is essential, if we are going to keep this system—if we are going to keep preventing the rise of possible evils in this system—we keep the federal government entirely out except to see that the money goes where it is intended to go. It makes it possible for the state that otherwise would not find it possible to do so to provide a minimum, decent education for all the children in that state.

I feel very strongly that in the educational field—as in health, in welfare, and in housing—the primary responsibility and right belong to the state and local governments. This is our constitutional system. I do not know whether the federal government has power actually to regulate those fields. It has power to spend money in them, which is derived from the spending power, the power to levy taxes for the general welfare; but there is no direct mention of power in the welfare field or field of education in the federal Constitution. I think the federal function is a secondary one in education, to come along and see that it is possible for the state to do its job. The necessity for it arises very largely out of the limited tax power of the state. The state cannot reach the most lucrative sources of taxation because it has competition from other states. People can move between states. If a higher income tax is imposed in a state, people will move to the next state, or they will move to Florida where they do not have an income tax. The same thing is true with inheritance taxes. It is true with corporate taxes.

In the legislature of Ohio, we had the question of taxing the

personal property of corporations, that is, machinery and plants. At what rate do you do it? Pennsylvania does not tax it at all. We taxed it finally at 50 percent, because we were convinced, while a 100 percent tax might not drive a steel plant out of Ohio, if a new steel plant was going to be built, it would have a material advantage in locating it in Sharon, Pennsylvania, rather than Youngstown, Ohio. You cannot tax even your industrial plants in the state very much higher than those alongside.

The lucrative sources of taxation, of course, are the income tax sources from corporations and from individuals. Those are almost barred to the states. Even if the federal government reduced its own taxes, I doubt if the states could successfully get much money from that kind of taxation. The states have pretty nearly scraped the bottom of the barrel, and they are raising 14 billion dollars, whereas the federal government, through its power, is raising 42 billion dollars a year—three times what the states have been able to do.

So I think there are many fields where, if the states are going to do the things the people demand they do, the federal government should give some assistance to them; but it ought to be concerned with giving them assistance and letting them do the job.

I have made it fundamental in all my programs that there shall be state and local administration. They shall have the power to run their own show. The federal government shall be only a consultant, and assistant, and a provider of information that will assist the states in doing the job which ought to be done, and which ought to be theirs. I say very strongly—I think this country is so large that, if we concentrate all power in Washington, we are not going to be free for any great length of time. People here do not know the conditions in the country. They cannot. You cannot make a regulation that fits forty-eight states, in many fields. Furthermore, there isn't real response to popular demand. A bureau here in Washington feels no pressure whatever from what the people think. They are behind a long barrier. People come here and may have to spend a couple of days trying to find the fellow they want to see about their affairs; but they may or may not get a polite reception after they

get there. After they leave, they are as the waves of the sea. They have had no effect on the fellow running that bureau, who thinks he knows his job and does not propose to be changed by any views of "hicks from the sticks."

As long as things are being run locally, men can speak out. They write letters to the newspapers, go down to council meetings and get a hearing, and run for office themselves on a platform, if they want to do it. I feel very strongly, unless we do maintain the essential power of local communities to decide their own problems in which they are interested, we are not going to have freedom in the United States or a democracy in the United States. We will end up with a police government.

I think that applies to education, but it also applies to the whole line of federal aid. When we say that tax conditions require federal aid, it is with the understanding that it not be used to impose federal control and operation on these various state and local governments.

I do not think I will try to cover the whole field of social welfare, but I may say, just by way of passing, that we did one other thing largely because of the Catholic-Protestant debate. We passed a bill in the Senate last week to provide federal aid for the health inspection of children in all the schools, including parochial schools. The considerations regarding education do not apply in the health field at all. It has nothing to do with religion, with the problem of federal interference or government interference with religion. We passed a bill which gives aid to the states to establish and make universal their systems, which exist partially today, for the inspection of school children and for the treatment of defects found in those inspections, particularly for those who are not able to pay for them themselves.

In the state of Ohio, for instance, I talked to the director of education, and I got some information from him. Ohio is fairly well along. But he stated that only 45 percent of the schools had such inspections on a satisfactory basis. Twenty percent had it on an unsatisfactory basis, which meant they were inspected once every two or three years. Thirty-five percent of the schools did not have any inspections at all, and the conditions

shown in the selection of draftees in the Selective Service report, while they were somewhat exaggerated, still showed that there were a very considerable number of those who were rejected, probably 10 percent of the total, who had defects which might have been corrected if they had been found at a sufficiently early age.

I think that bill is an excellent bill. It has no direct relation to the schools except that that is where you can do it cheapest. It is a fairly cheap program, if the children can be examined and treatment extended when they are all together. It is a general practice. But like most of these welfare things, while we recognize the obligation, while the states and localities recognize the obligation to take care of those who cannot take care of themselves, the job is not completely done or it is not done scientifically. The effort of our various state-aid programs in the welfare field is to give enough aid so that it can be done on a comprehensive and universal basis which reaches all the citizens and all the children, in this case, in the various states.

I would be glad to answer any questions on this afterward. I want to say this: This bill for federal aid to education is based on the ability of each state to do its job. I think the American Council on Education has a very distinct duty, if this bill is finally passed by the House and approved by the President. I think it must undertake the job of, so to speak, educating the educators; it must take a vital interest in seeing that this money is properly spent. I think all of the Southern states, where most of the money will go, are interested today in education. They have been improving their standards of education. They have been improving the education of the colored children, which started from almost zero, fifteen or twenty years ago, and North Carolina has done an outstanding job. Yet North Carolina today is spending only \$89 per child, compared to the national average of \$148. The other Southern states are considerably below that, yet. When you take the state and throw a large amount of money into it—more than they have ever had before—it requires an intelligent, comprehensive, and studious survey to see that money is properly applied, that the purpose of Con-

gress is carried out, and that the whole educational system in the state is improved. I think it is up to the people of those states. I think that the American Council itself should take an interest in seeing that the best professional advice is given to those various states to see that this money is wisely used.

As I say, I hope also that you will assist, yourselves, in seeing that the program is worked out to permit as little federal interference as possible with primary and secondary education. I hope, too, that you continue your job of teaching the people back home the way in which education can be improved. I am quite confident that, if the job is done by education at home—by teaching the people in every state and county how they ought to run their schools, so that they have the interest and the determination to do it—it is going to be a very much better job than if we suddenly transferred all power to the federal government and said, "You run the schools and run them according to regulation and orders issued from Washington."

Your function is a vitally important function, the improvement of education. The most we will try is to give the states the tools they need, but it is up to the people of this country themselves to work out a strong system of education if they hope to secure that improvement.

QUESTION PERIOD

CHAIRMAN HUNT: Senator Taft, our applause bespeaks the deep appreciation that we all feel to you for taking time from your busy schedule to meet with us and discuss with us some of the problems of education before Congress.

The Senator has kindly agreed to answer questions that his interesting discussion may have provoked. What questions do you have?

FATHER EDWARD B. ROONEY (Jesuit Educational Association): I have been interested in a statement you made. Maybe you could expand it a bit. You said that education was socialized a hundred years ago in this country. May I ask what you meant by that statement?

SENATOR TAFT: Socialization means the government runs it. Socialization of the steel industry means the government takes it over and runs it. In the educational field, primary education was socialized because every state stated, "We will educate free every child who comes to us and asks for that education."

To my mind, that is socialism, just as we have socialized the post office. Socialism in itself is not a bad thing. The only problem is whether you get to a point where the government runs everything. I think we have gone just as far as we can go, as shown by the expense today of 42 billion dollars, or altogether, with local and state expenditures, about 25 percent of the national income being taken for government operations.

I think we are getting pretty near the point where, if we go much further, we may so expand the government that the private economic system will not run at all, will not be able to bear the burden. Then you are up against the problem of the government taking over and socializing the whole community.

FATHER ROONEY: I think that is a good example, which you used, of an activity, a public activity—the post office. But suppose in this country that, besides our federal post office system, we had another system that took care of, let us say, one-tenth of the mailing facilities of the country. If there was another system which took care of at least a tenth of the postal activities without the post office service, would you say then that the government had completely socialized the postal system?

The point I am making, as you probably see, is that I do not think that it is true to say that the government has completely socialized the educational system.

SENATOR TAFT: I did not say completely, but I think, when the government says, "We will do the job; we will educate every child that comes to us," they have socialized education in effect.

The line which I draw as to what is socialism and what is not is more clear in the health field. As long as we merely say we will give free medical care to the people who cannot pay for it themselves, we are recognizing an obligation that has long been recognized in every state, as far as I know, to give free medical care to those who cannot get it otherwise. Every general hospital in the United States does it. I do not think that is socialism. The effect of such a policy benefits about 25 percent of the people at most. The great bulk of the doctors handle it on an entirely private basis. That is not socialism.

If the government undertakes to do what is proposed in this National Health Insurance, to collect taxes, 5 or 6 billion dollars, and then give free medical care to everybody who asks for it, I think they have socialized medicine, although there will be many private doctors and people who wish to pay a special doctor in addition to the tax they pay for the medical insurance. They will be able to do so and you will have a certain number of private doctors practicing in the country and getting money from the people who are able to pay it.

Consequently, I think socialism is a question of degree. If the government undertakes in a social service to give that service free to every

person who applies for it, or every child who applies for it, you can say that is socialized. Of course, a certain number of children want to go to private schools or parochial schools. I don't think that socialism requires that we say that they cannot do that. I think it is still fair to say that you have socialized the primary and secondary educational fields in the United States, and that it was done a hundred years ago. We don't prohibit people from going to other schools.

FATHER ROONEY: By using a phrase of that kind, it seems to me that we are either ruling out of consideration our [Catholic] system of education in the United States, which takes care of at least a ~~tertia~~ ^{third} of the children in our primary and secondary levels.

SENATOR TAFT: We do not rule that out at all. I do not think, because one says the system of primary education is socialized, there cannot be private activity in that field. Certainly there can be. You may move in and take over all the steel mills in the United States and still not prohibit somebody else from running a steel mill. Still you would socialize the steel industry under those circumstances.

FATHER ROONEY: The point is that, even though you do have a socialized activity, that does not preclude assisting other agencies working in that activity. England has socialized the educational system, but it does not prevent it from aiding private agencies in that field.

SENATOR TAFT: That is quite true. I wouldn't object to aid to other agencies. In fact, this bill provides aid to the Catholic schools for bus transportation. That is what Mr. Donnell's amendment tried to prevent. He said we should not do that. I said that we should do that. If the state runs its public education that way, our job is aiding the states, and we ought to give them the money to aid them the way they like.

Two difficulties are involved in the Catholic schools. One is the constitutional difficulty in which the Supreme Court says, "You cannot give aid to a sectarian school in any matter dealing with education." The other is that you run into the fact that this is a state-aid bill and, if you are not going to try to start out by forcing the states, I think you have to let each state decide that question. Whether you give aid to parochial schools to the extent to which you can do so constitutionally, I think, ought to be determined by each state and not by the federal government.

DR. LEONARD CARMICHAEL (President, Tufts College): I wonder if you would like to comment on the point of view of Senator Lodge concerning the proposed legislation?

SENATOR TAFT: I do not remember Senator Lodge's point. Senator Lodge voted for the bill.

DR. CARMICHAEL: I think he had a question on the formula.

SENATOR TAFT: Senator Lodge did not think that the wealth of a state could be determined through the statistics issued by the Department of

Commerce on total individual income. He said total individual income was not the best test, that there were many other tests that you might apply. Texas might have oil reserves which are wealth and not counted if you are counting income. They are not developed. He suggested that the federal basis of money derived from internal tax receipts is a better basis from each state. On that, he was completely wrong. He compared North Carolina with Missouri, and said the tax receipts are about the same, but the tax receipts from corporations and individual income taxes are just one-half in North Carolina what they are in Missouri. The other half is made up of 78 million dollars in taxes collected on cigarettes made in North Carolina, a tax paid by people throughout the United States, having no relation to wealth in North Carolina.

Finally, he came down to the plan to distribute the money on a flat \$10-a-child basis throughout the United States. He suggested that formula. That defeats the main purpose I am interested in. I am interested in equalization. The only thing that can justify the federal government stepping over this boundary into new fields where the states have been supposedly able to take care of the situation is the fact that we have such clear evidence of illiteracy in so many parts of the United States. I opposed this bill four years ago until, in the discussion, it came out so clearly that, in the Southern states, the amount given, particularly to the colored child, was way down—down to \$7.00 a child. That meant no education at all. The result, shown by the Selective Service statistics, was that a considerable number, over a million, were illiterate, could not read and write.

I was in Germany last December and talked to General Huebner about the things we are talking about. He has been getting new boys in Germany from the draft and from volunteers—boys of eighteen, nineteen years old. He has had to set up a school to teach them to read and write in many cases. There were over a thousand boys in school, learning to read and write, in the United States Army.

That certainly is conclusive evidence that illiteracy exists, and that is the thing I think we ought to get rid of first.

Whether Ohio gets \$150 per child or \$155 is relatively unimportant. Whether Mississippi gets \$55 is important. The first thing to get up is the minimum. It is important to get it up to a point where it can do some good.

I opposed the Lodge formula because it left the state in the same relationship that it was before. While it improved slightly the conditions of the Southern states, it improved them very slightly indeed, not more than perhaps the increased costs.

MR. R. H. ECKELBERRY (Ohio State University) : I would like to ask the Senator to comment on the prospects for higher education, some of the things that the President's Commission proposed.

SENATOR TAFT: I am afraid I have not studied the report. I have been involved in this question. Each thing that the federal government does has to be considered on its own merits. We have many proposals for state aid of many kinds. I do not think it ought to be done by the federal government unless there is no other way in which to do it. I think it is rather a mistake to get into a lot of smaller fields like recreation and libraries and other things, where the amounts are small, where the states could do it if they wanted to, where the federal purpose is to make them do things that we think they ought to do, which they are not doing. I question that kind of thing.

I recognize in the field of college education the great difficulties that arise. I would not like to say yes or no until I hear all the evidence about what it is.

In our medical bill, we were satisfied that medical schools were up against it. They could not expand. Some would have to go out of business unless money came from somewhere. We had the same application from nursing schools, public health schools, and others. We left them out of our bill, not because we think they should be excluded, but, we thought, they have to come before us and make a clear case before we get the federal government into another field of activity. That is my feeling on higher education. At the present time, I am very much on the defensive for being for federal interference in health, housing, and primary education, and I would like to get that out of the way first if I can.

FATHER WILLIAM E. McMANUS (National Catholic Educational Association): Senator Taft, my question is based on the premise that the right of a parent to send his child to a private school is as fundamental in our constitutional system of government as the right to cast a vote. My question is that, if it is true that the federal government should undertake a positive step to repeal the poll-tax technique in the Southern states, regardless of state wishes, why should not the federal government, regardless of state wishes, take a positive stand on the use of federal funds in an equitable manner for both public and private schools?

SENATOR TAFT: I do not think that the two are in any way comparable. One has to do with federal elections. Obviously, that is an interest of the federal government because it involves how members of Congress and senators are elected. I do not see a comparison.

In the educational field the state has the primary obligation to run this particular activity. The only reason that justifies federal aid at all is its inability to do it. At the present moment I am concerned only with the inability of the states to do the job. If we do not want to have the federal government undertaking education, if we do not want to have the federal government by-passing the states and giving money to parochial schools in violation of state constitutions (that is what you are asking us

to do), then we must proceed on the basis that we are proceeding on. You are actually putting the federal government into education. This bill is based on the theory of *aid* to the states only. The function is purely that of *assisting* states to do the job they want to do. The people in each state ought to be able to decide the kind of educational system they want. I think the place for the parochial schools to make their fight is in each state. I do not see the parallel you suggest.

That has been the basis of this bill from the beginning. I think it is the only justifiable basis; if the federal government is going to go into the business itself, of going down and telling each school what assistance it can give, I never would have favored the bill at all.

FATHER McMANUS: There are controls in the bill. In cases of schools for minority groups, the bill says, regardless of the state's own practice or its own funds, the federal funds are going to have to be used equitably.

SENATOR TAFT: It might say that and still not raise this other question which is an entirely different question, but it does not say that. It says that every school must get a minimum of \$55. One purpose of the whole thing is to obtain a minimum equality of education, a minimum standard of education for every child in the state. That is the basis. If a child does not want to take advantage of what the school offers, that is his right.

FATHER McMANUS: I think, Senator, you answered my question after saying there is no comparison, by further saying that a parent has a right to send his child to a parochial school provided he can raise the money himself to support that school, just as a Negro in the South has a right to vote if he can raise the accumulated poll tax. Rights that mean anything are empowerments.

SENATOR TAFT: Wait a minute. The sovereign states are to provide every Catholic child with at least \$55 worth of education. We require them to do it. There is no discrimination at all. They cannot discriminate. They have to offer that education to every child, but on this question of policy, as to what their school administration shall be, whether they shall do it through private schools or not, it is up to that state to decide that question. We are interested only in saying that they undertake with this money to provide a minimum education of \$55 per child for every child in a state. If they want to take it, all right. If they do not, they do not have to. We do not require them to take it. But there is absolutely not one line of discrimination in the bill. We give the money to the states, and the states must furnish education without discrimination. That is true. That is basic. That is what we are trying to do. We are trying to say that every child in the state, no matter who he is, must be given a \$55 education, if they want federal aid.

FATHER McMANUS: Provided he goes to a public school.

SENATOR TAFT: Surely. The state offers him that education. That

means there is no discrimination. But if they do not choose to take it, that is an entirely different question. Then you get into this whole question of religious limitations, which is affected by the United States Constitution, the state constitutions, and the local laws, and which we can only leave to each state to determine on the basis of its own laws. I cannot see why you are not in favor of it and fighting out on the state lines for your principle. That is the American way. That is the democratic way to do it. Let each community decide how it is going to educate its own children.

FATHER McMANUS: That is true with state funds, but not with regard to federal funds. You fight federal funds on a federal level.

SENATOR TAFT: But the federal funds are given only on one theory, to *aid* the states to do the job, not to tell them *how* to do the job.

The Place of Education and Training in World Recovery¹

By PAUL G. HOFFMAN

EDUCATION AND TRAINING must have *first* place in any program of world recovery if the program is to be *recovery* and not relief. If the productivity and, hence, the standard of living of the free people are to be increased, it can come about only through the enlarged use of training—training not only in production techniques, but also training in attitudes. The attitudes of both management and workers toward their jobs are one of the controlling elements in working out problems of increased productivity.

As for education, if, while learning to make a better living, the people do not, at the same time, learn how to live a better life, there will not be much substance to whatever gains ensue.

Before I talk in specific terms of the part education and training are playing in ECA, I would like to set before you the basic concept which guides all our efforts.

In each age there are a few ideas which fundamentally influence history. It is my sincere conviction that the Marshall Plan is one of them. Under the Marshall Plan, ECA's role in European recovery is primarily economic. But economic recovery in Europe, or failure to recover, has implications far beyond that field. The basic idea of American aid under ECA is this: to encourage the development of conditions upon which free institutions can flourish and to strengthen the fabric of free society so that it can withstand the extraordinary stresses of our times. We are working to the end that the free nations of Europe can give their people a standard of living that is not just barely enough to sustain life in "quiet desperation," but high enough to give people an incentive to work, live, and progress as free men.

I would like to go into some detail as to the educational assistance ECA is giving the Marshall Plan nations—our technical

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assistance program. In general, the aim of that program is to enable the ECA countries to increase productivity, both industrial and agricultural, through more effective use of their own resources and ECA-financed goods and services. Obviously, increased production is the keystone of economic recovery. Since in practically all the countries ECA is serving—all, in fact, but Germany and Italy—lack of manpower is a problem, this means increasing output per man-hour rather than merely increasing the labor force and adding more machines.

The importance of this, I think, becomes apparent when I tell you that the basic problem that must be solved, if we are to bring the productivity of Europe to a standard even approaching that of the United States—and the standard of living and productivity are intimately related—is that, in America, behind every industrial worker we have between six and seven horsepower, while in Great Britain there is three horsepower and on the Continent two horsepower. The productivity in Great Britain is something less than half of ours per industrial worker, on the Continent a third. The basic problem of lack of power cannot be solved except over a long period of time. The generating equipment necessary is hard to get. We could not hope, during the four years of the ECA program, to contribute too much to the power supply of Europe by new facilities—something, yes, but not too much—but here is a quick way to bring about a very substantial increase in power supply at a very low cost. It means increasing the efficiency of both the workers and production facilities. Such a method can be both time- and dollar-saving. A relatively small sum, spent wisely, may do the work of a much greater amount used to finance imports.

For instance, Col. Walker Cisler, executive vice-president of the Detroit Edison Company, recently made a survey of electric power properties in the Marshall Plan countries. He found that of the total power-generating capacity in Great Britain, approximately 15 percent is undergoing repair or maintenance overhaul (and, therefore, out of operation) in the periods of peak load conditions. On the Continent he found that this outage figure is in some cases as high as 25 percent. Here in America, where generating capacity is being stretched to the

limit in order to meet demand, the corresponding figure is less than 2 percent.

Britain has a generating capacity of some 13,000,000 kilowatts. If the outage figure could be reduced from 15 percent to even 5 percent, that would be the equivalent of over a million kilowatts. It would, in fact, increase the power available by 1,300,000 kilowatts. To build generating facilities in that country to produce 1,300,000 kilowatts would cost over \$200,000,000; they would take years to complete.

Under the technical assistance program we have brought responsible operating officials from electric power plants in the ECA countries to study the methods we use to reduce outage. The dollar cost will be nominal—something around \$50,000—but it can result in increased capacity which would cost millions—if not hundreds of millions—as well as time, to build.

Increased power means increased industrial output. Recent studies of European production have brought to light some very interesting facts. They have disclosed, for example, that industrial production per man-hour in the United States is about two and a half to three times as great as in Europe. This is not, of course, just a natural phenomenon, due to climate or some other and unexplainable factor. Neither is it necessarily due to the high IQ of American workers. The European worker, in most cases, is just as capable, just as ambitious. The European worker, we have observed, is putting out as much muscle in output as the American worker. The difference in output is wholly due to the power behind the worker and the difference in the types of machinery available to the workers in Europe and the workers here.

ECA and the ECA nations propose to find out the "why" of our high American productivity and, wherever possible, to translate that "why" into European terms.

To that end ECA is sending expert consultants to Europe. The ECA nations, as in the case of the electrical engineers, are sending teams of both workers and experts to this country; an exchange of technical experts between the ECA nations is being arranged, and technical literature (special studies and surveys) is being distributed. Parenthetically, I would like to say here

that one of the results of the program has been the discovery on this side of the Atlantic that European workers and experts have much to contribute to our own industrial knowledge. Rather than merely an export of know-how, the program has proven to be an *exchange* of ideas. The New World can teach the Old World much about mass production, but the Old World, in many cases, is ahead of the New in production techniques.

I would like to say something to you that I am sure you are already aware of. When we started on the technical assistance program, we did not realize how resistant people are to knowledge. That is something you have to learn through the years. We rather assumed that there would be an eagerness to accept whatever knowledge might be available. We have found, instead of that, that it is only as a result of the use of great ingenuity that we can get either our people to accept ideas from abroad or the people abroad to accept ideas from us. You educators have dealt only with the resistance of the American human mind to another American mind, but when you add to that the complications of the foreign element, when it comes to a foreigner telling an American something, I can assure you the resistance of the "good" American is doubled, and when we abroad try to tell some of our foreign neighbors how to do things a little better, their resistance is terrific.

We have found ways to overcome that. It is a technique we are using very widely, and is what we call a "bench-to-bench" technique. Briefly it is this: we do not bring experts from Europe over to America, or send experts from here over there. We organize a team in a given industry, including some from management, some workers, some financial people. They come to the United States and they live in our plants and our communities and, while we try to tell them what they are observing, they discover things, and they take back to Europe what they discover, not what we tell them. That has been a quite successful way of getting knowledge across the ocean.

Increased production in the field of agriculture is another feature of the technical assistance program. Studies have revealed that a 5 percent increase in European agricultural pro-

duction would cut import requirements by a billion and a quarter dollars. In general, the program will show results more over the long range than in the immediate future, but, in some instances, returns now seem to be on the books. By way of illustration, 33 young farmers from the Netherlands arrived in the United States on April 7. They are living with American farm families in fourteen states from Maine to Wisconsin, learning, through actual work experiences, American farm methods. They will have on-the-job training in animal husbandry, farm mechanization, stock- and crop-disease control, pest and weed control, and 4-H club work. On their return to the Netherlands, they will pass on to other Dutch farmers what they have learned.

Two forestry experts from Norway and a wood research expert from the Netherlands are now in this country, beginning a three months' intensive study of American methods and techniques. They will visit forestry experimental stations, forest products factories, botanical laboratories, and similar installations from coast to coast. Among the subjects to be studied are the use of wood waste, gluing processes in making plywood, painting, fireproofing, and preservation of wood, and control of termites and marine borers. Techniques on all these subjects in the United States are far advanced over those of Europe.

To date, we have some two hundred different teams scheduled to visit the United States during the coming year. Their interests are so varied that it would be impossible to list them here. Selecting just a few at random, I will mention:

A 16-man team from the British rayon weaving industry scheduled to arrive this month.

Two Greek government engineers who arrived April 19 to begin a two months' study of United States reclamation projects.

Rolf Svenkerud, head of the Veterinary Institute, Oslo, Norway, here on a three months' study of American methods of preventing and treating virus diseases among swine and poultry.

Six Norwegian technicians coming to investigate mining, manganese production, steel-making, and pulp and paper production.

A three-man Italian labor team here in March to study industry and labor conditions.

I must not, of course, omit the Anglo-American Council on Productivity. This is a permanent setup, established, however, under ECA's technical assistance program. It acts as a clearing-house of production information between this country and Great Britain and has already sponsored the visit of one group to this country—a team of foundry management personnel and workers. Other such visits are scheduled.

While we have learned that we do have to use ingenuity and develop new techniques to get acceptance of know-how both here and on the other side of the water, we have also learned (and this is surprising) what a chain reaction you get when these people get back to their own countries.

When these 33 farmers get back to the Netherlands, they will be objects of great interest. They are a very exciting group of young fellows. The oldest is thirty. The youngest is around twenty-one or twenty-two. We talked to them here in Washington. They are now living and working on American farms. When they get back home, I think we can be sure that the information they have acquired from their experience will be spread. A Dutchman will take the gospel from another Dutchman, but we could send 33 farmers from here to Holland, and they would be looked upon with considerable suspicion, and there would not be any acceptance of what they said.

So much for the foreign visitors. On the other side of the picture, an American scientist, Dr. Frederick J. Brady, of the United States Public Health Service, and an insecticide expert, Harry H. Sage, of the United States Department of Agriculture, are leaving shortly to study African sleeping sickness and malaria in East and West Africa. Their job will be to make recommendations for further United States assistance in combating the tsetse fly and mosquito, carriers of the two diseases. This is a matter of vital importance to use in other areas. As an illustration of how different projects interlock, it is well known that there are areas in the world which are important sources—or could be very important sources—of materials in short supply in the United States. But we cannot get at those areas unless there is a control of these disease-bearing insects. We rely

upon one branch of science to help clear the way for progress in another area.

ECA recognizes that such studies cannot pay off in the immediate future. There is quite a gap between the primitive method of just swatting the fly or mosquito and piloting a plane spraying a particular DDT solution. But prevalence of trypanosomiasis (sleeping sickness) and malaria probably is the most important single factor preventing the development of potentially productive mineral and agricultural lands in the dependent territories of Africa. Control of the disease-carrying pest is a long-range project, but there will never be a better time to start it than now. We are coming to the belief that, if Europe is to be self-supporting and have a reasonable level of income, it is essential to develop the continent of Africa and bring about much-improved standards of living in that area.

A disproportionate amount of training and education generally will be necessary in handling the problems of the dependent territories. It might take a few minutes to install a lathe in France. In certain parts of the world it would take months, or perhaps years, before the economy of the area could be developed to a point where that lathe could be put to effective use. But the economic advancement of the undeveloped areas is a vital factor in the attainment of the primary goal of the American foreign policy—a world of peaceful, friendly nations. It is a prerequisite to the development and spread of genuinely democratic institutions. ECA's deadline is June 30, 1952. All we can hope to do, perhaps, is to start the ball rolling. If we can do that, we will feel we have made our contribution.

It should be remembered that genuine European recovery cannot be achieved in a vacuum. Its success is contingent upon balanced economic relationships with the rest of the world. The underdeveloped dependent areas of the ECA countries offer possibilities for bringing about a greater degree of well-being and a better balance in the world economy, with relatively small investments of capital.

In addition to the material benefits which the technical assistance program offers, it already shows signs of developing into

a genuine educational program in human relationships. These men and women who are coming to the United States—and our people who are going to other countries—are learning to know and understand each other. I feel confident that some of the myths our visitors have accepted as facts about the United States will be dissipated after a few weeks' living with a Wisconsin farm family, mingling with Detroit automobile workers, visiting our factories, fields, farms, and forests.

In their contacts with these visitors, our people, too, will learn to understand that a Norwegian, an Italian, a Frenchman is very little different from an American—that he dreams the same dreams, wants the same peace and prosperity for his family.

I think I have been more struck by the collateral benefits that have come from the visits of these foreign teams to this country than by the direct benefits. For example, one of the first groups that came over here was a team of 12 men from Norway, all workers. It was the same team that had been on a visit to Russia and they had been, of course, properly regimented there. We told them we were going to give them the keys to America: they could go wherever they wanted to go and talk to anyone they wanted to talk to, and they would not be held to any fixed schedule. That created some complications for us, but we thought it was the right way to start them off. They did a considerable amount of free-wheeling.

They had been told some odd stories about America. They went to Detroit, fully expecting that the foremen would have whips to drive the workers with. In Chicago, they were surprised that the workers had shoes. They did not quite believe the fact that the automobiles in some of our yards belong to the workers. After a week or so and after talking to the workers themselves, they concluded that was really so—and that was astonishing to them. They were genuinely overwhelmed by the friendliness shown them everywhere by workers, by management, by all the people they met. I think every member of every team that has come over here is going back to Europe with an understanding of America that is going to help us perhaps in the most practical and comprehensive way to combat

the misstatements that are made about us by the Cominform in Europe.

In talking of ECA before many groups, I have said that peace is our business, that peace must be based on the mutual trust and understanding of the peaceful, freedom-loving people of the world. But neither peace nor stable prosperity can be secured in a bargain basement. We are going to have to *work* for them, and part of the job is up to you—educators in a free world. It is your task to bring to the hearts and minds of men appreciation and acceptance of the responsibilities free men must assume if this old world of ours is to realize its age-long dream of enduring peace and prosperity.

In the over-all operation of the ECA program, both here and overseas, cooperation has been accepted as necessary to any real accomplishments. In Paris, representatives of 19 different political units are working together, through the Organization for European Economic Cooperation, planning common measures of economic recovery and thinking in terms of permanent economic integration. The over-all design of a unified Europe is thus rapidly taking shape. Men of good will, all over Europe, are hard at work clothing the design with reality. Many of them have come to think in terms beyond mere economics. The practical and obvious results of economic cooperation are inspiring them with hopes of a far grander structure—the permanent close association of the free nations of Europe.

From this developing unity and understanding of the free nations of Europe and this free nation of ours is coming a strength which, in my opinion, should be able to withstand any challenge. But unity and understanding are not something that can be accepted in an emergency and later neglected. They must be constantly nourished. Again this is a task in which you as teachers can play a major role. ECA's job comes to an end in 1952. You have no such deadline. I don't think I am asking too much to suggest that individually you take on this assignment as a personal responsibility.

The stakes are high. There could well be peace and prosperity not only in our time, but for a long time.

The Education of College Teachers¹

By EARL J. McGRATH

LITTLE NEW CAN BE SAID on the subject of the education of college teachers. For a quarter century at least papers on this topic have been read at the meetings of various academic groups, and the journals of professional societies abound with articles on the subject. As long ago as 1920 *School and Society* contained an article by the then-president of the University of Wyoming lamenting the difficulties of administrative officers in finding faculty members who possessed both a broad liberal education and the ability to teach effectively. There is little in this paper that was not considered by Mr. Foster, the author of the article, twenty-nine years ago. In 1930 the need for an improved education for college teachers had assumed enough importance to justify the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, at the University of Chicago, to devote the entire program to this topic. The seventeen papers read at this conference contain many practical suggestions for the improvement of college teaching. It's an old subject! Many words have been said, but little action taken.

Since members of the profession have long recognized what needs to be done, why renew the discussion of the subject today? There are two good reasons for doing so. First, the reforms that have been persistently, but futilely, advocated through the years are now more urgently needed because of changes occurring in the colleges themselves. Second, there now seems to be evidence that some institutions responsible for training college teachers are beginning to alter their programs in desirable ways. Current discussions of the matter may accelerate the needed reforms in these and other institutions.

The most striking development in the colleges today is the nearly universal agreement that all students should receive a broader education than hitherto. To this end requirements have been set up in the various broad branches of knowledge, including

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courses which embrace the subject matter of two or more disciplines. For example, the distribution system under which the student took a science course in physics, chemistry, geology, or astronomy is now being replaced by a requirement that he take a broad course interrelating the subject matter of two or more of the sciences. Similar comprehensive courses are offered in the humanities and in the social sciences. With these developments in the college curriculum, the complaints of twenty or twenty-five years ago against the type of students leaving the graduate schools to assume teaching responsibilities are more valid now than they were then. For in those days teachers were not frequently required to offer instruction integrating the material of several subjects. Excessive specialization in graduate studies was, therefore, a less serious matter than it is today. Now, however, the teacher who begins his work in the average liberal arts college will probably be asked, at least for the first few years, to participate in a course involving several disciplines. Students of the college curriculum believe that such broad courses will increase in popularity and become nearly universal in the years ahead. If these courses are to be adequately staffed, a different type of education will be required for those who expect to devote their lives to college teaching.

These changes in the college curriculum have been paralleled by another phenomenon affecting the future of college teaching. Enrollments in the liberal arts colleges and in those divisions of universities which admit students directly from high school have increased rapidly in recent years. There is every indication that they will continue to grow in the future. If the junior colleges continue to multiply as rapidly as they have in the past, and if the recommendations of the President's Commission on Higher Education with respect to community colleges should be carried out to any notable degree, the need for college instructors will be urgent. An increasing proportion of students will pursue terminal programs of general studies, and even those in technical programs will include a large component of such subjects in their post-high-school education. Since many will not be going on for specialized or professional education, they

should have an education for the common activities of life rather than preparatory instruction for advanced study. The increasing enrollments in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades and the changing character of the curriculum clearly reveal the necessity of producing many more, and much-better-trained, college teachers.

It is especially timely now to reconsider the training of college teachers, because for the first time there seems to be some evidence that the institutions which have the responsibility for educating these teachers consider it a specific assignment. There is a small, but growing, body of opinion that the preparation needed by a person who is to spend his professional life in doing research, or in giving advanced specialized instruction in a narrow field, may not be satisfactory for those who may be expected to spend most of their professional lives in undergraduate teaching. These convictions have become sufficiently firm in a few faculties to cause the development of a different type of graduate program leading to the doctor's degree for those who expect to teach. Some of these plans will be considered later. The important point to bring out here is that there does seem now to be more interest in a program for college teachers than ever before. The raising again of the issues and problems involved may, therefore, be less of an academic exercise than it has hitherto been.

If we may assume for a moment then that a special educational program is needed for prospective college teachers, the question immediately arises, "What types of education should the future college teacher have if he is to discharge his duties efficiently?" Before attempting an answer to this question, we should be clear about the kinds of teachers we have in mind. We are here considering teachers, the majority of whom will spend their lives in separate liberal arts colleges or in similar divisions in larger institutions. We are not here concerned with teachers in professional schools or in advanced courses in graduate divisions, though much of this discussion would apply to them with equal force.

The question concerning the types of education college

teachers should have cannot be answered realistically without examining the types of activities college teachers actually engage in. What do college teachers do? It is not surprising that these faculty members spend most of their professional time in teaching or in preparing to teach. Depending upon the institution, they are occupied from ten to twenty hours a week in the classroom or the laboratory, and perhaps as long in preparation. Many still teach in only one subject-matter field, such as physics or history. Even in institutions without a program of general studies, however, many must teach related subjects, such as physics and chemistry, or sociology and political science. Since most college students take no more than a single course or two in one of the disciplines, it may be presumed that most of this instruction in the average institution is at the elementary or intermediate level. There are, in addition to these courses, some of an advanced nature which in any particular department reflect the special intellectual interests which the members of the department developed in their graduate work.

It is apparent that the average college teacher, however, spends most of his time instructing undergraduate students in the elementary aspects of his subject. Yet a very large proportion of the graduate program is devoted to the study of advanced specialized subject matter, remotely related to the content of first or second courses.

If the training of college teachers is to be geared to their actual future teaching responsibilities, the program of the graduate school must be greatly broadened. The ideal would be to require those who seek admission to graduate schools to become college teachers to show evidence that they have a liberal education. For, as Dr. Henry Suzzalo said twenty years ago, "The first requirement of any teaching scholar is that he should be a civilized or a cultured man in his intellectual understandings and appreciations. Too many college teachers are not. They comprehend a part of civilization masterfully, but they are too often ignorant of the rest. Their intellectual acquisition is patterned after the structure of an obelisk, when it should be constructed on the lines of a pyramid."

While the undergraduate colleges continue to permit a high degree of specialization, any requirement that college teachers be broadly educated in all the major areas would, however, be unrealistic. When current college reforms are further advanced, it may be possible to assume that a graduate of a liberal arts college will already have an understanding of the various broad areas of knowledge. In the meantime, something can be accomplished by advising college students who expect to teach to get as broad an education as possible in their undergraduate days.

Even if a broader liberal education may not at present be required of college teachers, the recent trends in the college curriculum demand that, at least within the student's major area of concentration, the graduate program be expanded. Instead of taking three or more years beyond the bachelor's degree in one field such as history, or physics, with an ever-narrowing specialization within those fields, the future college teacher might reasonably be expected to reduce the number of courses in his specialty and include a wider variety of subjects from related disciplines. If, for example, many college teachers are going to spend a considerable part of their professional life teaching general courses in the social sciences, as appears likely, it seems only reasonable to prepare them to do this by extending their graduate program into two, three, or more social science fields. The same extension should, of course, be made in the humanities and the sciences. Teachers may thus enter upon college teaching without the present high degree of specialization in a single subject. If, however, the graduate program has cultivated a thirst for knowledge, these teachers might be expected to extend their learning after graduation. The reduction of specialization within the field would have a further advantage. It would retard the multiplication of highly specialized courses which really do not belong in undergraduate divisions, and probably would not be there were it not for the cultivation of specialized interests in graduate schools. The first conclusion we may reach is that the range of subjects in the graduate program of a college teacher should be extended into several fields related to his major field of interest.

Thus far we have been concerned only with the subject matter. Some attention must be given to the processes of giving instruction. The most arresting defect in the training of college teachers is the lack of requirements relating to the specialized activities of the profession. One need only observe the inability of a capable scholar to transmit knowledge or to excite an interest in his subject to realize that there is more to teaching than learning. Those who observe good teaching sometimes fail to note this fact, because profound and wide learning may be quite obvious, while the skills by which the accomplished teacher imparts knowledge and excites thought are subtle and inconspicuous. It may be true that a few human beings are born with this divine genius to teach. The majority of those who aspire to become good teachers, however, must learn the arts of the guild through study, observation, and practice, just as the arts of the medical profession are learned through the study of medical techniques and through practice—not after, but before a practitioner's license is granted.

Let me hasten to add that I am not advocating eighteen hours of the systematic study of pedagogy—nor even any required instruction under the administration of a school of education. I would say, however, that a prospective teacher could be greatly helped in his initiation into his professional duties by meeting in a seminar on college teaching conducted jointly by subject-matter specialists and by educationists. Such a group might, in the course of a graduate year or two, study such subjects as the purposes of college education, the kinds of students colleges may expect to receive in the next few years, the kinds of education they can profitably pursue, pertinent material from psychology, and other matters related to the collateral activities of college teachers, such as advising students and making out examinations.

There is now a considerable body of reliable knowledge dealing with such matters which, if learned by graduate students, would save them much aimless work, blundering, and ineffectiveness as beginning college teachers. At some point in the graduate program, before the prospective teacher advances too far, he should become acquainted with this knowledge and these skills

of the profession. A recent experience at the University of Chicago in conducting a seminar for college teachers—drawn from many departments—confirms the view that such instruction can be not only profitable but also highly interesting to beginning teachers—and, I may add, to experienced teachers as well.

Formal instruction in the theory and practice of higher education can be very helpful. But most of the activities of life, if they are learned at all well, are learned by doing—not by reading or talking about them. One learns to play the harp by playing it, to paint by painting, to do research by doing research, and one learns how to teach by teaching. Most teachers will admit that, regardless of their previous education, they really didn't learn much about teaching until they began to teach. Experience in the classroom under the guidance of an accomplished teacher should, therefore, be an essential element in the preparation of college teachers. Would it be too much to ask that each student, perhaps in the second year of his graduate work, be placed under the direction of a teacher of recognized ability who, for the remaining years of graduate study, would act as counselor, supervisor, and professional guide. After watching a competent teacher at work, the student could begin to assist with the class, and finally assume full teaching responsibility. He would then, upon graduation, enter upon his responsibilities experienced at least in the basic activities of the profession.

Some are no doubt already asking the question, "If the graduate student is to broaden his knowledge and learn something about the theory and practice of teaching, when will he do his research?" I have said there is more to teaching than learning. Nevertheless, at the risk of appearing inconsistent, I should like to add that without learning there can be no *good* teaching. Therefore, scholarship is the basis of good college teaching. Before answering the question about research, however, let us consider again the activities college teachers actually engage in and their relation to scholarship and research. Research is not conspicuous among these activities. This is not to deny that some distinguished and laborious research has been done by college

teachers. Studies made by various professional groups, however, show that only a relatively small percentage of faculty members actually make genuine contributions to knowledge after they complete their doctor's thesis. In some professional groups, the mathematicians and historians for example, the percentage some years ago was between fifteen and twenty. Under present circumstances only a few can be expected to continue their research interests and activities after they assume their teaching responsibilities.

It would seem reasonable, therefore, to raise a question concerning the validity of the existing research requirements in their present form. Few would deny that the doing of a piece of intellectual work, and reporting the results in scholarly form, develop intellectual initiative, resourcefulness, and persistence, which should be very useful if carried over into the activities of college teaching. Might it not be desirable in the case of college teachers, however, to make a distinction between what might be called pure, fundamental, or basic research on the one hand, and interpretative scholarship on the other? Is not a teacher no less a scholar if he continuously studies the literature of his own and related fields, if he attempts to organize the findings of scholarship for teaching purposes? He may not be doing research in the sense of making an original contribution to knowledge. But might it not be just as well to give the prospective college teacher an opportunity to broaden his knowledge, perfect his powers of reasoning, and exercise the capacity for philosophical synthesis? If so, the present research requirement for the Ph.D. degree might be changed somewhat for future college teachers, by permitting them to do a thesis involving the rearrangement or interpretation of already existing knowledge, in place of an original research project in a narrow field. Some will feel that the interpretative piece of scholarship is intellectually less exacting than more conventional research. But this is a matter of standards of performance. An exercise, like an interpretative or philosophic writing, can surely, under proper controls, provide opportunity for intellectual development as great as that which results from

many research projects in a narrow field of knowledge. In any event the present research requirement for the Ph.D. degree ought to be carefully evaluated to discover why such a large percentage of those who receive it do no more research, and what other values, if any, it may have in the training of college teachers.

I have attempted to sketch out some of the defects in the present program for the preparation of college teachers, and to suggest the lines of development that reform might take. In terms of common practice they may seem to be radical. They have all, however, in one form or other, been proposed by responsible bodies of educators in recent years. And, happily, they have been embodied in whole or in part in new programs for graduate students at Harvard, Syracuse, Chicago, Michigan State, and they are being considered elsewhere. These institutions should be congratulated on their enterprising spirit in experimenting with new programs designed to improve college teaching.

More widespread experimentation and cooperative effort are needed if an adequate supply of college teachers is to be produced in the immediate years ahead. To this end I propose the immediate development of a cooperative project involving the liberal arts colleges, junior colleges, graduate schools, and, particularly, representatives of the professional associations in the various fields of learning. The purposes of such an organization would be to evaluate conventional practices in the graduate schools which train college teachers, to organize experimental seminars or courses for prospective teachers, to develop cooperatively with colleges teaching internships for graduate students, and to enlist the support of foundations in such efforts. Perhaps the American Council on Education is the agency to undertake such a project. In any event, some such effort needs to be made soon if full advantage is to be taken of the present highly encouraging developments in a few institutions.

Minutes of the Thirty-Second Annual Meeting of the American Council on Education

MAY 6-7, 1949

WASHINGTON, D. C.

THE THIRTY-SECOND annual meeting of the American Council on Education convened at 10:00 A.M. in the Grand Ballroom of the Mayflower Hotel, Washington, D. C., on May 6, 1949, Dr. Herold C. Hunt, general superintendent of schools, Chicago, Illinois, and chairman of the Council, presiding.

Three hundred and sixteen individuals were present, including representatives of 44 constituent members, 19 associate members, and 121 institutional members, as well as representatives of nonmember educational organizations, colleges, schools and school systems, government departments, and miscellaneous individuals and groups.

The secretary of the Council, Eugene B. Elliott, president of the Michigan State Normal College, read the minutes of the thirty-first annual meeting, which were regularly approved by vote of the Council delegates present.

Chairman Hunt then introduced the first speaker on the program, the Honorable Robert A. Taft, United States senator from Ohio, who addressed the meeting on "Education in the Congress." A discussion from the floor followed Senator Taft's paper, participated in by the Senator, Edward B. Rooney, S.J., Leonard Carmichael, R. H. Eckelberry, and William E. McManus.

Dr. George F. Zook, president of the Council, was the second speaker on the morning program, presenting his annual report on the activities of the Council during the year May 1948 to May 1949.

During the morning session Chairman Hunt announced the membership of the Nominating Committee to select officers for the Council and new members of the Executive Committee for the year 1949-50. The Nominating Committee had been authorized by the Executive Committee at its meeting on February 21, 1949, and consisted of the following:

William S. Carlson, president, University of Delaware, *chairman*
William H. Lemmel, superintendent of schools, Baltimore, Maryland
Levering Tyson, president, Muhlenberg College

The morning session adjourned at 12:15 P.M.

AFTERNOON SESSION, MAY 6

The afternoon session was called to order at 2:30 P.M., Dr. Eugene B. Elliott, secretary of the Council, in the chair.

The Honorable Paul G. Hoffman, Administrator of the Economic Cooperation Administration, opened the afternoon program with an address on "The Place of Education and Training in World Recovery."

At the conclusion of Mr. Hoffman's address his remarks were discussed by him with Raymond Walters, George F. Zook, Mordecai W. Johnson, and Henry H. Hill.

The new United States Commissioner of Education, Earl J. McGrath, was the second speaker on the afternoon program, discussing "The Preparation of College Teachers."

The third and final speaker of the session was Algo D. Henderson, associate commissioner of education of the state of New York, who discussed "The Plight of the Private Colleges."

The afternoon session came to a close at 4:30 P.M.

EVENING SESSION, MAY 6

The evening session, beginning with dinner at seven o'clock, was held in the Sapphire Room of the Mayflower Hotel. Two hundred and nine persons attended the dinner meeting. Frederick L. Hoyde, first vice-chairman of the Council, acted as toastmaster, and introduced the guests at the speakers' table. These guests were those members of the Executive Committee of the Council present at the meeting, the wives of the Chairman, President, and Vice-President of the Council, of the United States Commissioner of Education; and two guests from Canada (representing the National Conference of Canadian Universities and the Ontario Department of Education). The Toastmaster also introduced to those present at the dinner the Education Officer of the British Embassy and four members of the faculties of European in-

stitutions, as follows: University of Frankfurt, University of Heidelberg, and the University of Vienna.

The annual chairman's address was delivered by Herold C. Hunt, general superintendent of schools in Chicago, who spoke on "The Superintendent Looks at Research."

Sumner T. Pike, vice-chairman of the Atomic Energy Commission, also spoke at the dinner session on "Atomic Energy and American Education."

At the conclusion of Mr. Pike's address there was presented to the dinner guests a showing of the "March of Time" film on *Atomic Energy*.

After the showing of the motion picture the session adjourned at ten o'clock.

MORNING SESSION, MAY 7, 1949

During the morning of May 7 the meeting broke up into conference sections, at which were discussed further four subjects presented at the sessions on May 6, as follows: The Plight of the Private College, The Place of Education and Training in World Recovery, Atomic Energy and American Education, and The Preparation of College Teachers. These sessions were under the leadership of the following individuals, listed in order of the subjects mentioned above: Charles J. Turck, president of Macalester College; Samuel P. Hayes, Jr., special assistant to the Assistant Secretary for Economic Affairs, Department of State; Morris Meister, principal, Bronx (New York) High School of Science; Karl W. Bigelow, chairman, Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. Each of the conference sections was well attended by individuals particularly interested in the problem being considered.

Two of the sections passed formal resolutions. The section on the preparation of college teachers went on record as approving a study in this area and urged the American Council on Education to move ahead rapidly in this direction. The section on "The Plight of the Private College" passed the following motion:

Resolved, That we request the American Council on Education to study and report on the situation created for the independent and church-

related colleges, (1) by the provision in the federal income tax law that contributions in excess of 15 percent of the gross income of the taxpayer shall not be an allowable deduction; (2) by existing doubts as to the legality of gifts by corporations to educational institutions; and (3) by the gradual decrease in the percentage of total American benevolent-giving that goes to educational institutions, particularly to those of relatively small size and independent of government control.

AFTERNOON SESSION, MAY 7

The Saturday afternoon session opened with a business meeting, beginning at 2 P.M., in the Grand Ballroom of the Mayflower Hotel, Herold C. Hunt, chairman of the Council, presiding.

The first item of business was the report of the Nominating Committee, which was presented by its chairman, William S. Carlson, as follows:

For Chairman:

James B. Conant, president, Harvard University

For First Vice-Chairman:

David B. Henry, president, Wayne University; representing the Association of Urban Universities

For Second Vice-Chairman:

Martha B. Lucas, president, Sweet Briar College

For Secretary:

Eugene B. Elliott, president, Michigan State Normal College

For Treasurer:

Frederick P. H. Siddons, vice-president, American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D.C.

For Assistant Treasurers:

Grace R. Ontrich, chief accountant, American Council on Education
Helen C. Hurley, assistant to the president, American Council on Education

For Membership on the Executive Committee, for three-year terms:

Charles J. Turck, president, Macalester College
Herold C. Hunt, general superintendent of schools, Chicago, Illinois;
representing the National Congress of Parents and Teachers

It was moved and duly seconded that the report of the Nominating Committee be accepted, and that the Secretary cast a unanimous ballot for those nominated.

It was unanimously voted to elect the above-named individuals as officers and members of the Executive Committee of the American Council on Education, all offices, except wherein indicated, to be for the year 1949-50.

Chancellor Rufus H. Fitzgerald, of the University of Pittsburgh, a member of the Problems and Policies Committee, submitted as recommendations from the Problems and Policies Committee and the Executive Committee of the Council, sitting together, the following names of individuals for nomination to the Problems and Policies Committee, in accordance with the provisions of the Council's constitution:

For regular four-year terms, May 1949 to May 1953:

Raymond B. Allen, president, University of Washington

Charles W. Cole, president, Amherst College

George D. Stoddard, president, University of Illinois

It was moved and seconded that the report presented by Chancellor Fitzgerald be accepted and that the Secretary of the Council should cast a unanimous ballot for those nominated as above.

It was unanimously voted that the above individuals should be elected to membership on the Problems and Policies Committee for regular four-year terms.

The secretary of the Council, Eugene B. Elliott, then presented the financial statement of the Council for the ten-month period, July 1, 1948 to April 30, 1949, for (a) the General Administrative Budget and (b) the Publications Revolving Fund. Copies of the financial statement and the proposed budgets for 1949-1950 were in the hands of those present. Their adoption was recommended by the Executive Committee of the Council.

It was voted to approve and adopt the budgets of the American Council on Education, as presented, for the fiscal year July 1, 1949 to June 30, 1950, for (a) the General Administrative Budget in the amount of \$153,000, and (b) the Publications Revolving Fund in the amount of \$134,600.

The Chairman of the Council then called the attention of the meeting to the fact that the auditor's report on Council funds for

the fiscal year July 1, 1948, to June 30, 1949, will appear in THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD for October 1949.

The Chairman of the Council announced that the thirty-third annual meeting would be held on May 5 and 6, 1950, but that the place of meeting had not yet been determined. He concluded the session with an expression of appreciation to the officers and staff of the Council, and to members of committees and others who had contributed valuable voluntary service to the Council's program during the year.

CONTINUED AFTERNOON SESSION, MAY 6

After the business meeting Dr. Herbert Duda, dean of the Faculty of Philosophy of Leipzig University and a professor at the University of Vienna, and Professor Walter Hallstein, at present connected with Georgetown University as a consultant on Central Europe and the comparative law of the foreign service, and formerly professor of law and rector of the University of Frankfurt, described educational conditions in Austria and Germany to the Council members.

The final speaker on the Saturday afternoon program was Eric Johnston, president of the Motion Picture Association of America, Inc., who spoke on the subject of "Democracy at Home and Abroad."

The thirty-second annual meeting of the Council adjourned at 4:35 P.M. to meet again on the first Friday in May 1950 unless called into special session by the Chairman before that date.

Respectfully submitted,

EUGENE B. ELLIOTT
Secretary

The
EDUCATIONAL RECORD

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VOLUME XXX

NUMBER 4

OCTOBER

1949

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AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

1949-50

ADMINISTRATION

OFFICERS

CHAIRMAN: James B. Conant, President, Harvard University
FIRST VICE-CHAIRMAN: David B. Henry, President, Wayne University, representing the Association of Urban Universities
SECOND VICE-CHAIRMAN: Martha B. Lucas, President, Sweet Briar College
SECRETARY: Eugene B. Elliott, President, Michigan State Normal College
TREASURER: Frederick H. P. Siddons, Vice-President, American Security and Trust Company, Washington, D.C.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Until May 1952: Herold C. Hunt, General Superintendent of Schools, Chicago, representing the National Congress of Parents and Teachers; Charles J. Turck, President, Macalester College

Until May 1951: Harold W. Dodds, President, Princeton University; Virgil M. Hancher, President, State University of Iowa

Until May 1950: Russell M. Grumman, Director, Extension Division, University of North Carolina, representing the National University Extension Association; William F. Tolley, Chancellor, Syracuse University, representing the Association of American Colleges

Ex Officio: James B. Conant, Chairman, American Council on Education; Eugene B. Elliott, Secretary, American Council on Education; George F. Zook, President, American Council on Education; Earl J. McGrath, United States Commissioner of Education

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The Educational Record

October 1949

A. J. BRUMBAUGH, *Editor*

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The Educational Record

October



1949

What Is a College?

By BURNS B. YOUNG

IN HIS LATEST NOVEL, *The Ides of March*, Thornton Wilder sets the stage with an imaginary weather report sent to Julius Caesar by the "Master of the College of Augurs." Although the plot of the novel greatly exaggerates the facts, an organization by that name existed in Rome. Its present-day counterpart can still be found, but no one thinks of it as a college. At the mention of the word, most people visualize a different kind of organization. Historical influences have altered the original meaning of "college," and today it almost always designates an institution of higher learning. The intent of this paper is to trace the history of the word, to show the variations of general meaning in different historical periods, and to indicate some of the major events which contributed to the alteration of this general meaning.

The original Latin word for college was *collegium*—plural form, *collegia*. In that language it referred to a collection of persons united by the same office, interest, or occupation and living by some common rule. A modifier in the genitive plural usually accompanied the substantive to indicate the membership of the organization. Thus, the Romans called the college mentioned by Wilder, *Collegium Augurum*, and its members predicted weather and prophesied future events.

THE ROMAN COLLEGE

The initial appearance of an institution which bore the name *collegium* probably occurred in early Roman history about 700 B.C. According to legend, Numa Pompilius, the second king of Rome (715-672 B.C.) divided the workmen into nine guilds, or *collegia fabrum*. Each *collegium* had a peculiar sacrum, or ritual, of its own, definite officers, a common treasury, an annual fete-day, and a regular constitution drawn up in accordance with the *lex collegii*. This kind of organization enabled the authorities better to regulate the activities of the artisans, and it became the pattern for all such associations, or assemblies, established by the Romans. In all cases the common interest and occupation of the individuals formed the basis of these corporate bodies.

The number and kind of *collegia* gradually increased, and by the first century B.C. examples could be found in almost any occupation or profession. The number of colleges founded by the Romans has never been determined or even approximated, but that they must have been numerous is apparent from the great range of interest they covered. The following list shows how completely this pattern of organization diffused throughout all classes of peoples.

Collegia Praetorum: associations of praetors or judges

Collegia Tribunorum Plebis: associations of magistrates

Collegium Pontificium: an association of high priests

Collegia Sacerdotum: associations of priests or priestesses

Collegium Flavianum: an association of priests for the Flavian family, instituted by Domitian Flavian

Collegia Mercatorum: associations of traders or merchants

Collegium Mercurialium: a specific corporation of traders

Collegium Aerarium Fabrum: an association of treasury workers

Collegia Poetarum: associations of poets

Collegium Ambubaiarum: an association of Syrian girls who supported themselves by their music and immorality

This list demonstrates the popularity of the *collegium* among the Romans. The formation of such associations was practically uncontrolled under the Republic, and after a time they began to develop political tendencies. Toward the end of the Republic many of them had degenerated into pressure groups such as

abound today. As a consequence of this activity the authorities deemed them harmful and abolished them by a *senatus consultum* in 68 B.C. Ten years later Clodius restored them to favor and added new ones, but Caesar, upon becoming emperor, returned to the policy of suppression. This trend continued through the reigns of Augustus, Claudius, and Nero, and came to a climax in the reign of Trajan. By that time the feeling against such associations had become so strong, Trajan vetoed Pliny the Younger's plan to establish a college of firemen in Nicomedia with the following message:

You are of the opinion it would be proper to constitute a college of firemen in Nicomedia, agreeably to what has been practiced in several other places. But it is to be remembered that this sort of societies [*sic*] have greatly disturbed the peace of your province in general and of those cities in particular. Whatever title we give them, and whatever object in giving it, men who are banded together for a common end will all the same become political associations before long.¹

Although the organization of the *collegium* resembled that of a corporation, it was not a corporation in the strict legal sense during the Republic and the early days of the Empire. It had no charter, nor did the state require a license for its formation. This requirement dates from about the time of Alexander Severus (208-35) and became effective during the period when the popularity of the associations called *collegia* was waning. This license, or charter, permitted the group to hold title to property and to sue in the courts. It also controlled the arbitrary actions of the leaders of the groups. At this time, however, the titles of *universitates* and *corpus* were preferred, since the word college had an unsavory tone because of its previous connection with the despised political groups. Hence, the practice of using the title of *collegium* for licensed corporate bodies was rare. The early Christians, it is true, formed into groups called colleges, but they had no legal sanction and they too soon dropped the name. The associations of workmen and other occupational groups faded into the background with the rise of

¹ E. G. Hardy, *C. Plinii Cæciliæ Secundi Epistulæ*, trans. by William Melmoth (London: Macmillan Co., 1889), p. 131, Ep. X-34.

Christianity, and the few colleges mentioned in the later Roman inscriptions were merely religious brotherhoods, burial clubs, or benefit clubs.

In the transitional period from Roman to Christian domination, a connection between associations of men called colleges and educational institutions appears for the first time. On this score Leach writes:

By a strange chance the guild halls of the colleges came to be called schools (*scholae*). A name no doubt derived from the educational guilds, such as Plato's Academy. . . . Professor Baldwin Brown, in his *From Schola to Cathedral* (1884), suggested that the earliest type of Christian Church with the nave and apse was derived from the *Scholae* of the *collegia*, and Rossi's researches in the Roman catacombs confirmed and demonstrated the truth of the suggestion. Probably the Medieval practice of dubbing the Jewish Synagogues *Schola* is derived from a similar analogy, if not from actual practice.²

Thus, the organization of the early Christian church, even so far as to the design of the buildings, seems to have been a direct outgrowth of the Roman *collegium*. Although the church adopted the structure as a model, it did not take over the name. With the decline of the Roman Empire and the Roman law, the institution remained, but the word college dropped out.

The tendency toward group association reached a low ebb during the Dark Ages. Trade and commerce had come to a standstill, and all of the manufacturing and craft associations appear to have completely died out in the western European countries. Furthermore, the ascetic emphasis of the church did not foster collective organization other than that of the monastic orders. Since the church did not use the title college for its organizations, and since such organizations as existed outside the church did not in any way resemble the Roman *collegium*, the word does not appear in the writings of this period.

THE MEDIEVAL COLLEGE

The revival of the Roman law, that is, civil law, in distinction from canon law, brought with it the idea of corporate asso-

²Paul Monroe (ed.), *Cyclopedia of Education* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1911), II, 51.9.

ciation and consequently the word college. For example, the first type of association mentioned in this revival was called a *gild*. The Carolingian capitularies of 779 and 789 both used the word. The fear of the power of such groups, expressed by Trajan seven hundred years before, still existed, however, and in 884 another capitulary prohibited villeins from forming associations "vulgarly called *gilds*."

In the ecclesiastical structure of this period, the bishop and his clerks formed an organization in the manner of the long-forgotten Roman *collegium*. Although the canon law acknowledged their corporate existence, it referred to them as chapters (*capitulum*) of canons. The early "collegiate" church also used the term "chapter" for its corporate title, and grants of money for its support were made simply to the church and the canons serving it.

The word college reappeared in 1215 in the constitution of the Fifth Lateran Council, which ordered "Three of the college [*de collegia*] to take the votes." As used here, however, the word implied a group of delegates, rather than individuals who resided under a common rule. This new meaning of the word continued, but never became general. It can be found today in isolated cases such as electoral college, college of cardinals, and college of justice. The Germans at one time called their senate a college. Since this connotation did not become generally accepted, the importance of the passage in the constitution of the Fifth Lateran Council lies in the date of the document and in the mention of the word college, rather than in the institution it described.

It would be well at this point to digress in order to indicate a characteristic of the medieval college which distinguished it from the Roman *collegium*. In addition to being a corporate association of men with common interests, the medieval college also acted as administrator of property derived from gifts and endowments. The income from this property provided the benefices, exhibitions, or stipends of the members of the college. This feature enabled it to attract men from the remunerative careers and professions to the profession of knowledge. Thus,

it became the foundation for the educational structure of the Middle Ages.

Since the evolution of the institutions which bore the name college varied in all parts of the medieval world, it can be handled most adequately in accordance with national groups. In this respect the medieval colleges fall into three distinct classes: the French college, the German college, and the English college. This classification does not deny that colleges developed in other countries or that a great similarity existed among these three groups. The evolution of the colleges in each of these classes makes the separation necessary.

THE FRENCH COLLEGE

During the latter part of the twelfth and the beginning of the thirteenth centuries, a new form of association developed at the University of Paris. In the loose political organization of the age the students, who gathered in large numbers at the universities, not only had legal difficulties with the local residents and the university, but also had considerable difficulty in maintaining themselves. Previously they had been able to provide for their sustenance by begging from the townspeople, but it became impossible for the inhabitants to support several thousand students with good-will offerings alone. As a result of this overcrowding, riots between the town and gown became common. In order to provide legal means for avenging injuries inflicted by the local residents and the students, the latter organized themselves into groups called "nations"; but this had little or no effect toward remedying the financial situation of the individual student. Hence, an additional organization—the college—developed.

An Englishman named Jocius, or Joyce, established the first of these new organizations, which later became known as colleges, at the University of Paris about 1180. On his return from the Crusades he noticed the plight of the students at the university. In order to give them assistance, he purchased a room in the Hospital^s of the Blessed Mary and arranged with the

^sAt this time the word "hospital" referred to public or private dwelling houses for temporary visitors to the area or for aged or indigent persons.

authorities to provide beds for eighteen students. The Hospital also agreed to pay each student eighteen *nummi* a month out of the alms collected in the hospital chest. This group, known first as the Scholars Dix-huit, later became the College of Eighteen. As this type of altruism increased, donors purchased houses and halls and incorporated them in the name of the students who resided there. Count Robert of Clermont established the House of Poor Scholars of St. Thomas in 1186, and in 1257 Robert of Sorbonne founded the House of Scholars which bears his name. Rashdall lists seventy such foundations at the University of Paris prior to 1500.⁴ Many of these foundations had died out or had been absorbed by the more affluent groups, but historians refer to these institutions as the colleges of the University of Paris.

The University managed to acquire complete control over these colleges and through the power of visitation set the regulations for their internal government. Very early, however, it began to depend on the masters of the colleges to provide the instruction in particular faculties. By the end of the fifteenth century the larger colleges had become teaching agencies organized as large schools within the university system. For instance, Sorbonne and Navarre gave all lectures and instruction in theology at Paris. The smaller colleges dwindled into boardinghouses dependent on the *collèges de pleine exercise*, as they called those which provided a full educational course.

The Sorbonne continued to expand its functions, and by the time of Louis XI it had become by far the most important college at the University of Paris—so important that doctors of theology were styled “doctors of the Sorbonne.” The worldwide influence of the University of Paris began to wane during the reign of this monarch because of his deliberate policy aimed toward the destruction of its ecumenical character; but the Sorbonne, within the limits of France, retained as much importance as before.

⁴ Hastings Rashdall, *The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages*, new ed., Powicke and Emden (eds.), (3 vols.; New York: Oxford University Press, 1936), I, 536 ff.

The University remained much the same from that time until 1792 when the Revolution closed it and all the provincial universities of France. In the plan for the reorganization of the French educational system in 1808, Napoleon I used the word college to designate the municipal secondary school. This use of the word has persisted in France to the present, with one important exception.

That exception is the Collège de France, the pandemic institution of higher learning in modern France. Francis I became irked because the University of Paris refused to admit the newer disciplines to its faculties; and about 1530, at the suggestion of Budé, he founded a new institution of higher learning with twelve professors, including one each in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, and gave it the name of Collège de France. Aside from this, the word college means a high school in France and has lost all connotation of residence or corporate association.

THE GERMAN COLLEGE

The medieval college mainly owed its stability in France to its coalition with the university, in England to its wealth. In the German university, however, the college had neither of these characteristics, and so it died out. The word college in its rare usage by the Germans today has come to mean a course rather than an institution or an association.

The first German universities differed little from the University of Paris. The teaching establishment separated itself into the usual four faculties. The teachers and the students, at least those belonging to the faculty of arts, lived together in the university buildings, called *collegia*. When the attendance increased to the extent that the university buildings would no longer suffice, individual *magistri* were allowed to maintain private boarding houses. These were called *bursae*. Eventually the students and teachers of the faculty of arts came to reside exclusively in the *bursae*, and the *magistri* of the three higher faculties—law, theology, and medicine—remained in the university buildings and retained the name college for their residence. According to Paulsen, this arrangement presupposed on the one hand the

celibacy of the *magistri* and on the other the extreme youth of the students.⁵

These two organizations did not last long, however, since they became embroiled in the crisis created by the Protestant revolt. In accordance with the underlying philosophy of the members, the colleges and the *bursae* assumed diametrically opposite positions on the fundamental questions of the age. The colleges harbored the rising literature and rendered themselves instruments of its progress. On this score Sir William Hamilton wrote in 1831:

. . . the colleges seemed anew to vindicate their utility and remained during the revolutionary crisis at least, in unison with the spirit of the age. The *bursae*, on the contrary fell at once into contempt with the antiquated learning which they defended; and before they were disposed to transfer their allegiance to the dominant literature, other instruments had been organized and circumstances had superseded their necessity. The philosophical faculty to which they belonged, had lost, by its opposition to the admission of humane letters into its course, the consideration it formerly obtained; and in the Protestant universities a degree in arts was no longer required as a necessary passport to the other faculties.⁶

The *Gymnasium* established about this time sent the youth to the universities at a maturer age, and the discipline of the *bursae* was found less useful to the university and the student less disposed to submit to their restraint. Hence, the *bursae*, having little reason for existence, were in general abandoned.

The colleges—the residences of the celibate members of the three higher faculties—which had gained strength during the Protestant revolt, began to wane when the discontinuance of celibacy for the masters made communal living less essential. As the professors set up their own residences, the last vestige of collegial life disappeared in Germany; and with the declension of the mode of life it represented, the word college vanished, as it had fourteen centuries before in Rome.

⁵ Friedrich Paulsen, *The German Universities*, trans. by Edward Delevan Perry (New York: Macmillan Co., 1895), p. 26.

⁶ Hamilton, "Discussions on University Degrees," *Edinburgh Review*, CVI (June 1831), 405.

THE ENGLISH COLLEGE

Four distinct groups of institutions used the name college in England, and the underlying purpose of each of these groups varied so greatly that they must be treated severally. To some extent all four groups left their impression on English education, although only one of them still exists. The groups were the monastic colleges, the collegiate churches, the guild colleges, and the university colleges.

The monastic colleges.—In order to replenish their ranks and to provide canonists competent to represent them in the ecclesiastical courts and transact legal business, the older monastic orders—such as the Clunians and Cistercians—established small units in the neighborhood of the universities. These halls, or colleges, came into existence about the middle of the twelfth century. They did not, however, become important centers of education. Their principle contribution lay in demonstrating and passing on an example of internal control which the later university colleges adopted. The presence of the colleges of the religious orders greatly stimulated the foundation of the secular colleges. Thus, Rashdall writes: "The secular college would never perhaps have developed into the important institution it actually became but for the example set by the [monastic] orders."¹ The monastic colleges continued to spring up around the English universities, particularly after the foundation of the mendicant orders; but they confined their efforts principally to the training of their own members. With the dissolution of the greater monasteries in 1536, these colleges also ceased to exist.

The collegiate church.—In the middle of the thirteenth century, when the regular canons of the older monastic orders had fallen into disfavor with the general public, a revulsion in favor of the secular clerks took place; and a new era of colleges began. These secular clerks—ordinary clergymen who did not belong to one of the orders—formed the institution known as the collegiate church. This new-type church took its descriptive title from the mode of living practiced by the priests who performed its services. They resided in a community and called their residence

¹ Rashdall, *op. cit.*, I, 509.

the "college of priests." This body of priests differed from the canons attached to the cathedral churches in that they had no voice in the government of the diocese, and their church was located outside the bishop's see. As previously noted, the original corporate title of these churches was chapter. This term came from the practice of reading chapters of the rules or scripture to monks or canons assembled in a group. Eventually the meeting place of these assemblies became known as the chapter house, and the group as a chapter.

In order to gain greater status for a newly established collegiate church, the seat of the college of priests was usually located in the original parish from which a well-known prelate had come. The college bought or established small churches in the neighboring area with the endowments and gifts of wealthy patrons. The members of the college conducted the services in these new churches, but their residence remained at the seat of the college.

As a college grew in wealth and influence, it gained control of churches too far away for convenient travel. In that case it assigned one of its members to live in the parish church and paid him a prebend. The college collected the revenues of this distant church and used them for the benefit of the entire group of churches.

The word college probably first appeared in England in connection with collegiate churches. On March 26, 1267, the foundation deed of the Collegiate Church of St. Thomas the Martyr, at Glasner, now a part of Cornwall, designated its organization as *Collegiatam Ecclesiam*. By 1300 people quite generally applied this title to new foundations and even to those previously established which had not been so designated. In that year Southwre Minster, the Archbishop of York's Nottinghamshire quasi-cathedral, which had existed since the year 800, became the Collegiate Church of Southwre.

These organizations continued to increase in number and importance to the middle of the sixteenth century. At that time the Chantries Acts, which will be later discussed, brought about the confiscation of the majority of them and discouraged further foundations of this type. Those that did survive this suppres-

sion finally lost their secular function of education when the public-supported education movement of the nineteenth century gained favor. At that time they dropped the form of the college, although in rare cases they still retain the name.

The guild colleges.—This type of college was endowed primarily to provide prayer for the soul of an individual or his family. The founder also charged the priest with the additional duty of teaching his children or relatives, and this type of institution became the agency that provided the elementary education in medieval England.

The nomenclature of this type of corporate association had little uniformity. The founders designated them by a great variety of names; but because they had certain identical characteristics, and lacked the distinguishing features of the other types of colleges, this multinamed group is treated as a separate type. Consistency in name, as well as in function, makes it easy to identify the collegiate churches, the university colleges, and the monastic colleges; but when one attempts to distinguish between the organizations or societies called guild colleges, chantries, free-chapels, hospitals, fraternities, brotherhoods, stipendary priests, and sometimes even guilds, the task becomes insurmountable. Quite often the same organization used several of the above names at different times. Leach refers to the "Bablake guild, sometimes called a college, and now called Bablake Hospital at Coventry."⁸ During this change of name, the structure and purpose of the endowment remained substantially the same. Leach further states that the "term chantry is usually confined to an endowment of one or two priests only . . . if there were more than two priests on the same foundation, it was often called a college."⁹ This also varied, however, since a foundation with four priests at Wysbeche took the name of Trinity Guild, and St. Lawrence Guild at Ayssheburton had only one priest.

⁸ A. F. Leach, *English Schools at the Reformation* (Westminster, England: Archibald Constable & Co., 1896), 46.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 48.

The Chantries Acts of 1545 and 1548 list the whole group of organizations in such a manner that they appear to be different names for the same type of associations. The order of the listing gives no clue which might indicate a definite difference in kind or degree. This, however, seems clear: they were separate and distinct organizations from the numerous craft or merchant guilds of this period. A further passage in the above acts specifically renders the latter type of organization immune from confiscation and sets it apart from that group called in this paper guild colleges.

The purpose as stated in the original foundation statutes, however, differentiates this multinamed type of organization from the other types of English colleges. Prayer for the soul of the endowing individual and his family constituted the motive for the foundation. Since the endowment provided complete support for the priest or priests, and since this duty of prayer could not occupy all of the time, it included the further duty of conducting a grammar school for the founder's descendants and poor children.

The wholesale destruction of these foundations by the enforcement of the confiscatory measures of the Chantries Acts resulted in the abandonment of this type of institution. Government-subsidized free schools supplanted this type of college, although niggardly grants kept the new elementary educational institution at a low ebb until the coming of public-supported education in the late nineteenth century.

The university colleges.—These differed from the other types of medieval colleges in that the founders emphasized the purpose as *ad studendum et orandum* instead of *ad orandum et studendum*, that is, for study and prayer rather than for prayer and study. Education, therefore, served as the motivating factor in the foundation of the university college.

This organization developed on the pattern of the colleges of the University of Paris. Five years after the establishment of the House of Scholars of Robert of Sorbonne at Paris, the House of the Valley Scholars of the Blessed Nicholas came into existence at Salisbury, in England. This foundation did not

flourish or attract many scholars, however, since it soon came under the control of the Bishop of Salisbury, who relegated it to the status of an elementary school and attached it to the cathedral located there.

In 1267 Walter Merton established the House of Scholars of Merton, at Maldon, in Surrey. Because of the uncertainty created by the schism in progress at Oxford, the original statutes of this house of scholars gave it power "to move wherever a university may flourish." In 1274 this association moved to Oxford and became the first of the organizations now known as the colleges of Oxford University.

Prior to the foundation of Merton, John de Balliol, after being publicly scourged by the Bishop of Durham, supported a group of scholars at Oxford; but to his widow goes the credit for placing the "House of Balliol" on a permanent footing in 1282, thirteen years after his death. As in Paris, these organizations did not take the name college from the beginning. They were termed halls, houses, or hospitals of scholars. Friar John Peckham, Archbishop of Canterbury, first applied the word college to these English institutions in 1284 when he referred to Walter Merton as "planter and founder of your college." In 1324 King Edward II granted a license to his almoner, Adam of Bron, to found a "college of scholars studying in diverse sciences, in honor of the Virgin." The founder himself called this group "the college of Scholars of the House of the Blessed Mary." Thus, by this time college was a common appellation for groups of scholars engaged in study.

In 1327 the Scholars of the House of the Blessed Mary moved into a new dwelling and took the title of Oriel College—its present name. This name, taken from a peculiar architectural feature of the building, indicated that the building in which the scholars lived had begun to assume importance. The foundation statutes of New College at Oxford specifically applied the word college to the building wherein the scholars resided. In 1379 William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester and ex-lord chancellor, received a license to found a "certain College, House or Hall and give it a name, for warden and seventy scholars

studying in divers faculties in the University of Oxford." He gave it the name in the vulgar tongue of "Seinte Marie College of Winchester in Oxenford," but it soon became known as "New College, Oxford"—its present name. From this time on the word college at the university meant the residence as well as the group of scholars.¹⁰

Although I have indicated that the institutions here called university colleges were founded *ad studendum et orandum*, they soon dropped all emphasis on prayer. Mark Pattison, rector of Lincoln College at Oxford and authority on the structure of the medieval college in England, held the opinion that the motive and design of the foundations in connection with Oxford University could be divided chronologically into three periods. Merton and Balliol Colleges typify the foundations of the first period, in which the college took the form of an eleemosynary institution designed to collect indigent students into a house and provide them with two meals a day while they attended the university. In the second period, exemplified by New College, the eleemosynary motive still existed, but the statutes implied a rule of life. The colleges of this period adopted the best features of the monastic institutions, except that the cultivation of knowledge—rather than contemplation and evangelization—became the main business of life. In the third period, that of the Renaissance, advancement of learning stood out as the supreme object of the founders. Corpus Christi and Cardinal exemplify the colleges of this period.¹¹ Pattison's hypothesis would indicate that by the time of the establishment of the later colleges, the religious inducements which initiated the collegial form had entirely died out.

The fate of the English college.—By the beginning of the sixteenth century, the word college designated four types of institutions in England: the monastic colleges, the collegiate church, the guild colleges, and the university colleges. These four types

¹⁰ A. F. Leach, *Educational Charters* (Cambridge, England: University Press, 1911), p. 351.

¹¹ Mark Pattison, *Suggestions on Academical Organization* (Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas, 1868), p. 122.

had among themselves assumed the responsibility for the education of the English people. In this century a chain of events occurred which had a great effect on the word college and almost destroyed the English educational system. Only one of the types withstood the disastrous effects of the series of suppressive measures passed in the first half of the century. The monastic colleges were dissolved. The collegiate churches were dismembered. The guild colleges were annihilated. The university colleges alone survived, and even they were for a time in serious danger of extinction. This institutional carnage resulted, not from educational measures, but from the attempts of the king and Parliament to weaken the Roman Church and to strengthen the newly established Church of England.

The monastic colleges received the first felling blow of the confiscatory acts of this period. Partly as a revulsion to the degradation of the monastic orders and partly as an attempt to lessen the influence of the Roman Church, Parliament passed an act in 1536 which called for the dissolution of the greater monasteries. Most of the fruits of this confiscation went directly to the crown, but the collegiate churches received a small share of the loot. This enabled them to gain control of the intermediate education of the youth of England so that their later destruction in 1548 practically wiped out English secondary schools.

In 1545, on the pretext of monetary need for the pursuit of the wars with Scotland and France, Henry VIII had the first of the so-called Chantries Acts passed. This legislation rendered all property belonging to colleges liable to seizure by the king. Listed on the chancery rolls as "An act for the dissolution of Colleges, Chantries, and Free Chapels at the King's pleasure," it began by reciting: "That where there have been diverse colleges, free chapels, chantries, hospitals, fraternities, brotherhoods, guilds, and stipendary priests having perpetuity within this your realm. . . ." After indicating the institutions to which it referred, the act provided, "That all the said colleges (etc) by what name soever they were founded or known, and all the

mansion houses of any such colleges, (etc) . . . shall from henceforth be in the possession and seizin of the King."¹²

The ultimate effect of this act, had it been carried out, would have been the confiscation of the remaining three types of colleges in England. However, the law was made only for the life of the king; and when Henry died in 1547, only a dozen or so colleges had been actually confiscated on the strength of this act.

In the first year of the reign of Edward VI, Somerset, the protector and uncle of Edward, brought about the passage of the Chantries Act of 1548. While this act destroyed two of the remaining three kinds of colleges, it permitted the continuance of those connected with the universities. It was entitled: "An act whereby Certain Chauntries, Colleges, Free Chappels and possessions of the same be given to the King's Majestie." This act specifically exempted from its provisions any "College, Hostel, or Hall being within either of the Universities of Cambridge and Oxenforde," "the Colledge called St Marye College of Winchester besides Winehester of the foundation of Bishop Wikeham [*sic*]," and "the College of Eton."¹³ This act also provided for the re-establishment of schools where they were most needed. The administrators actually carried out the confiscatory provisions of the act and appropriated the wealth of all the named institutions to the crown. The commissioners appointed to direct the refounding of schools were not so conscientious in carrying out the constructive provisions of the act, however, and very few schools were re-established. The number which they neglected to refound is not known; but in 1563, Sir Thomas Williams, speaker of the House of Commons, deplored the earlier destruction and referred to England's dire need for "a hundred schools . . . which before this time have been."¹⁴

This wholesale destruction of colleges, besides having a disastrous effect on the educational system of England, also restricted the almost universal use of the word college as the name of any corporate body existing on a foundation to a word of limited

¹² Leach, *English Schools at the Reformation*, p. 61.

¹³ Leach, *Educational Charters*, pp. 472-75.

¹⁴ *Cyclopedia of Education*, II, 431.

usage designating a particular type of institution. With the exceptions listed at the beginning of this section, the word college in England and consequently in America has been applied since 1548 principally to educational institutions, and most often to those concerned with the higher education.

THE MODERN COLLEGE

In England a college is, in general, a part of, and subordinate to, a university. In the United States and Scotland the word can be and is used interchangeably with "university." This less-restricted use came about by its peculiar application to institutions in those countries early in the seventeenth century.

The Commonwealth of Massachusetts, under the leadership of Governor Winthrop and others, established Harvard College in 1636. The original charter designated it as *Harvard College*; and under its first president, Henry Dunster, it conferred nine bachelor of arts degrees in 1642. It has been thought by some that this constituted a radical departure from the established custom concerning the granting of degrees and that such procedure had no precedent in the history of colleges.¹⁵

The first part of this thesis presents this question: Why would European universities, backed by centuries of tradition, accept degrees from an upstart college which had not conformed to the usual procedures? The degrees which Harvard conferred on the first class were valid degrees and were recognized by four Old World universities as such. Four of the nine members of the class of 1642 (Harvard's first class) received advanced degrees after having received their first degree from Harvard College: Benjamin Woodbridge received the master of arts degree from Oxford in 1648; Henry Saltonstall received an M.D. degree at Padua and later became a fellow at Oxford; Samuel Bellingham received an M.D. degree from Leyden; Nathaniel Brewster received a bachelor of theology or divinity degree from the University of Dublin. The records concerning this class do not disclose what evidence was required by the

¹⁵ A. Lawrence Lowell, *What a University President Has Learned* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1939), p. 27.

universities for entrance to advanced study. In order to determine the exact procedure, the case of a later Harvard graduate must be cited.

James Ward received his B.A. degree from Harvard in 1645; and three years later, as a fellow of Magdalen College, he received a master's degree from Oxford University—the same time he would have received the second degree from Harvard College had he remained in America. The following excerpt from *Sibley's Harvard Graduates* indicates the procedure of his entrance:

James Ward's testimony, dated 3, December 1646 and 'subscribed to by Hen [sic] Dunster, President and Sam Danforth fellow' of Harvard College, was submitted 10, October 1648, and he became a fellow of Magdalen College at the University of Oxford, where in the same year he was also admitted to the degree of Master of Arts.¹⁰

Substantially the same information appears in the register of Oxford University. It does not appear that Ward experienced any difficulty in entering Oxford, and his first degree could have been no more valid had he received it from that University. Apparently Oxford and the European universities did not think that a college issuing degrees constituted a radical departure from the established custom, or they would not have so readily accepted a degree from such an institution.

The second part of the thesis, which intimates that Harvard had no precedent for conferring degrees, is certainly not true. In Scotland independent colleges had been issuing degrees for almost one hundred fifty years before the founding of Harvard College.

The University of Aberdeen, established in 1492, consisted of only one college, yet it had conferred degrees from the very first. A century later George Keith, Fifth Earl of Marischal, founded Marischal College in New Aberdeen with the provision that it remain separate from Aberdeen University and that it have power to confer degrees. It remained a separate college

¹⁰ Clifford Kenyon Shipton, *Sibley's Harvard Graduates* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press), I, 122.

until its consolidation with Aberdeen University in 1858.¹⁷

All documents relating to the foundation of the University of Edinburgh (1583) refer to the institution as the College of Edinburgh, or the Town's College. It too possessed the privilege of granting degrees from the first. In 1621, fifteen years before the founding of Harvard, the Scots Parliament officially recognized the right of a college to confer degrees when it ratified to Edinburgh College "all the rights, immunities and privileges enjoyed by other Universities in the Kingdom." The Parliaments of England and Scotland renewed this ratification upon their union in 1707.¹⁸

It is not usually thought that the precedents of Harvard College were other than the colleges attached to the University at Cambridge, and certain it is that in general the early colleges in this country were modeled after those of the English universities. In the matter of commencement exercises, however, the influence of the Scottish colleges cannot be overlooked. The thesis forms used by Harvard in its first commencement so resemble those of Edinburgh College and differ so markedly from those of either of the English universities that Morison suggests that they may have been a copy of those of the Scottish college.¹⁹ Hence, if Harvard used the forms and procedures of Edinburgh as models for its first commencement, it is reasonable to assume that the college also followed the precedent established by the degree-granting Scottish colleges.

The establishment of Durham College in England some twenty years after the founding of Harvard also casts light upon the seventeenth-century degree practices. Oliver Cromwell founded this college by letters of patent on May 15, 1657, and in 1659 Parliament drafted an ordinance giving it power to grant degrees as a university. The college failed with the downfall of the Commonwealth, but the first attempt to establish an institution of higher learning in England after the Chantries Acts of

¹⁷ William L. Davidson, *The Maker of Marischal College and His Happie Offspring* ("Aberdeen University Studies," vol. 19 [1905]), pp. 62-64.

¹⁸ Morgan and Hannay, *University of Edinburgh, Charters, Statutes and Acts, 1583 to 1858* (Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd, 1937), pp. 46-48.

¹⁹ Samuel Eliot Morison, *The Founding of Harvard* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1935), p. 136.

a century before resulted in the establishment of a *degree-granting college* and not of a university. This clearly indicates that the founding fathers of Harvard merely followed the pattern of the times and did not embark on a new venture when they established Harvard College.

All the institutions of higher education established in the United States prior to the Revolution used the word college as their title, rather than university. Thus, the practice gained a firm hold on American education and resulted in the modern general meaning of the word college in this country: a four-year undergraduate institution offering the bachelor of arts degree as indicative of the completion of its course.

CONCLUSION

This review of the history of the word college indicates that time has wrought profound changes in its meaning. Although known by the same name, the Roman college, the several varieties of medieval colleges, and the modern academic college have indeed little in common. The review also appraises a popular misconception about the immediate progenitors of the American academic college—in particular the oft-repeated statement that Harvard took unprecedented action when it granted the A.B. degree.

No mere antiquarian interest in the meaning of a word, it must be declared, has prompted this historical summary. On the contrary, the writer has undertaken this investigation for the pressing practical reason that the American academic college is now—and has long been—under attack from many sides. In the past one hundred years, at least a dozen major attempts have been made to bisect or to destroy it. All have failed because their advocates considered only a portion of the problem.

Nor have the indictments ceased. In 1939 the American Youth Commission urged “. . . a unified public school system beginning with the nursery schools . . . and continuing without special break through the fourteenth grade.”²⁰ Although the terminology differs, this proposal corresponds in all important particulars with the numerous recommendations for and efforts

²⁰ *Youth and the Future, General Report of the American Youth Commission* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1942), p. 120.

at change made between 1852 and 1913. The University of Chicago in 1933 joined the last two years of its University High School to the first two years of its college to form a new kind of educational structure, and in 1942 it began to grant the A.B. degree (although not the B.S. degree). But as Cowley predicted in his article of 1942 entitled "A Ninety-Year-Old Conflict Erupts Again," no other institution has followed this plan.²¹ Again in 1946 the President's Commission on Higher Education repeated the proposal of the Youth Commission.

These criticisms of the American academic college, extending as they have over almost a century, reveal the abundant and continuous dissatisfaction with it in important educational circles. The traditional college, however, has again and again resisted efforts to modify it, and the more knowing of its champions, watching the struggle, recall such remarks as that of Santayana that "Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it." They see their opponents using the same unsuccessful arguments and the same ineffective strategy, and they take comfort in the historical ignorance thus displayed.

And yet the traditional college has great limitations, and many informed observers consider it the most critically ill of all institutions in the American educational system. Guided by emotions and special interest—rarely with adequate knowledge—both the friends and foes of the college continue their century-old feud. This conflict eventually will be resolved, but the writer believes that the final solution will be hastened if, in Walter Lippmann's words, "We see ourselves and the events of our day as one act in a drama which began long before we were born and which will not be played out until long after we are dead."

In the spirit of this and comparable statements of other leaders of thought, the writer has traced at length the evolution of the word college in order that the institution it now designates may be seen in perspective. His hope is that the historical summary here given may be of assistance to those upon whom falls the direction of the American academic college into the ever-arriving future.

²¹ W. H. Cowley, "A Ninety-Year-Old Conflict Erupts Again," *Educational Record*, XXIII (1942), 192-218.

The Plight of the Private Colleges, and What to Do about It

By ALGO D. HENDERSON

THE COLLEGE ENROLLMENT this year is the highest it has ever been in the history of the United States. This sounds as though "business is good." Yet I have been asked to speak on the subject "The Plight of the Private Colleges, and What To Do About It."

This peak enrollment has brought problems of postwar adjustments, of congestion, and of lowered standards. But these problems are now reasonably under control.

Of what, then, does the plight of the private colleges consist? Undoubtedly it is apprehension about the future: concern about finances, about regaining a higher level of quality for the academic program, about threatened competition from public institutions. With some educators there is genuine concern lest the program of higher education become too adulterated by the newer tendencies in curriculum-building.

Of these concerns the one about finances is the most worrisome. To make progress financially under our American enterprise system, however, requires that the colleges have an optimistic outlook for students and an enthusiasm for their educational programs. I want first, therefore, to analyze the prospects of the private colleges in these respects.

What is the future outlook for college enrollment? In all probability this is the peak year not only for the past but also for the near future. The marked decline in new matriculations of veteran-students will continue, and there will probably be some shrinkage of total enrollment for the next five to seven years. But the shrinkage will be temporary. And assuming the absence of disturbing factors such as a business depression or compulsory military training, the enrollment should remain considerably above the prewar total.

¹ Address given before the annual meeting of the American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., May 6, 1949.

The phenomenal increase in the birth rate during the war and postwar periods is familiar to everyone. The number of children born during the five years ending in 1947 was 33 percent more than the number born in the last five prewar years. The population of college age youth will begin a rapid increase by 1958 and will rise to unprecedented heights by 1965.

The long-time trends for number of students graduating from high school and number entering college have both shown continuous and rapid growth during the past fifty years and more. In New York, for example, the number of youth per 100, age eighteen, graduating from high school, rose from 8.9 in 1919-20 to 55.5 in 1940-41. It was 61 in 1947-48. The number of resident students in college per 100 youth, ages eighteen to twenty-one, rose from 9.3 in 1920 to 21.2 in 1940-41. Figures for later years are distorted because of the presence of the veterans. A statistical projection of enrollments from the year 1900 to the present indicates that the upward trends may not level off until high school graduation reaches 70 to 80 per 100, and college entrance reaches as high as 40 per 100 youth. If these trends do persist, college enrollment will reach a new all-time high shortly after 1960.

The persistence of the trends, however, assumes that the demand from potential students will be accommodated. To get this result will require that certain barriers—economic, geographic, minority discrimination, and the insufficiency of two-year, technical programs—which now limit the attendance at college of many youth, be reduced or removed. The most serious barrier is the financial one. In New York State, according to a sample study, 57 percent of the youth who graduate from the highest quarter of the high school class do not now go on to college. Studies by the Ohio College Association, the American Youth Commission, and other agencies have shown a similar conclusion. Probably not all youth even in the highest quarter of the class will ever go to college. But the New York study demonstrates that the rate of college attendance of youth from high-income families has been two and one-half times that of youth from low-income families. One of the conclusions is genuinely

startling: the college attendance rate of graduates from the *lower half* of the high school class whose parents have had incomes of \$9,000 and over has actually been higher (44 percent) than has been the college attendance rate (41 percent) of graduates from the *highest quarter* of the class whose parents have had incomes between \$2,500 and \$5,000.

It is clear from these facts that the reservoir of potential college students is large, and has been only partially tapped by the colleges. The President's Commission on Higher Education in its inventory of talent set this reservoir at 4,000,000 youth. Although this goal may be too high to be realistic, the enrollment in the early 1960's should without difficulty surpass that of the present year. Certainly it will do so if steps are taken to lessen the barriers to higher education.

In this connection the President's Commission advocated a more rapid development of post-high-school programs of the two-year kind for the benefit of students who want to train for the subprofessions. Assuming that this development will take place—as is already happening in many states—and assuming a larger demand from able students from low-income families, the four-year colleges should be able to raise the average quality of their student bodies. This they need to do. In New York, admissions data for 1946 from seventeen upstate, nonsectarian, privately controlled, liberal arts colleges show that these colleges selected 5 percent of their freshmen from the lowest quarter of the high school class, and 13 percent from the next lowest quarter. The church-related colleges commonly reported that their threshold of admission was in the lower half of the high school class. Many of these students should be in the two-year courses, making place in the four-year colleges for more able youth from low-income families.

Is there, then, a plight about enrollment? Excepting for the immediate future, there is no prospective lack of students. There is no shortage of youth of good college caliber. The only plight of the private colleges is that they must select students from too restricted a clientele. The plight is not a dearth of students, but a lack of funds with which to assist students from low-income

families. It is these youth and those who desire the subprofessional courses who will cause the new surge of college students.

The second question to ask is, what is the plight of the private colleges respecting the educational program? One phase of the apprehension felt by some educators is that they fear there may be an overproduction of college graduates. A few have voiced the theory—that has had some recent vogue—that there will be an overproduction and that men who do not find employment in the professions for which they have prepared will become frustrated. Frustrated men, in turn, so it is reasoned, will become the prey of totalitarian agitators.

One writer has added confusion to the discussion by calculating the number of college-educated men there would presently be under the goal of the President's Commission and allocating these men among the major professions in the proportions in which men are now engaged in these professions. Naturally, he reaches some absurd results.

To analyze these points of view fully would take more time than I have available. I should like, however, to make the following observations.

1. It is a sad commentary on our higher education if we conclude that the only lasting result from the years in college is to prepare men for technical proficiency in just one occupation; that if these men do not have full and continuous employment in that occupation, they will in large numbers become Fascists or Communists.

2. It makes an interesting reflection on our system of private enterprise to imply that we must train men in the major professions in numbers only sufficient to meet the demand for their services in the bottom of a depression.

3. Studies of the professional fields which typically have the largest number of graduates—engineering, law, business administration, education—show that training in these professions is transferable to many other fields.

4. In advocating college education for more people, the President's Commission had in mind the wide range of occupations for which college education is desirable, if not a necessity,

today. This includes many new professions, of which clinical psychologists, labor mediators, and nuclear physicists are examples; it includes a great assortment of subprofessions, such as radio technologists, dairy bacteriologists, and medical secretaries; and it includes also people in almost any occupation where general knowledge and special skills are of value in doing a more intelligent job. And the Commission had equally in mind the general toning-up of the citizenry of this country that would occur if a considerably larger portion of the voters were better educated.

In my opinion the danger to this country lies in having too little—not too much—education. The war period, when the nation undertook special educational programs for such purposes as upgrading technicians, training foremen, developing administrators, and refreshing graduate scientists, involving millions of men and women, demonstrated one kind of educational need if we are to continue to develop our human resources more fully. The Cold War period, which has witnessed the resort to propaganda on so tremendous a scale, shows well the need for more education, and especially higher education, to counteract the propaganda with objective and factual analyses and with the reasoned conclusions that come from academic training. In addition, education has—or should have—a principal function of helping each individual to live a fuller life. A democracy is founded upon education—*lots* of education, including higher education.

The colleges of liberal arts, in particular, need not be discouraged about the future. For new life and vigor are being breathed into this fundamental curriculum. The discovery of atomic energy is potentially more revolutionary in our civilization than was the discovery of fire by early man. While Einstein is still living, the equation that bears his name has unlocked the door to new inquiry in the sciences. The effects on the study of the whole of science will be profound, and research will be fruitful of pursuit for many generations to come.

The social sciences are equally alive today with vastly complex and intensely interesting problems in human living. Education

must play an increasingly dynamic role in paving the way for world understanding and order, for congenial race relations, for better economic productivity with stability and security, and for more universal physical and mental health. In the humanities we need to find and promote common ethical motivations among all the peoples of the earth. We need to broaden the base of our cultural heritage in the West to include appropriate lessons from the East and the Middle East. We need to emphasize greater proficiency in languages other than our mother-tongue so that we can have increased communication round this shrinking globe. In the fine arts, who dares to say that the American people are any more than in their infancy in creating treasures of lasting value?

Future historians may note that by the middle of the twentieth century the arts and the sciences had begun a second renaissance. Any plight that there may be regarding the college program exists largely in the minds of those traditionalists who still think in terms of a circumscribed curriculum of Western thought, mostly predating the scientific era, and whose approach to education is still that of "disciplining the mind." As Dr. Karl T. Compton recently said: "Our educational institutions are faced as never before with opportunities so great that the very fate of mankind will depend on the effectiveness with which they can meet this challenge. Mistakes arising from ignorance, or lack of skill or foresight, may be just as disastrous as actions with subversive intent."

There are new developments in education beyond the high school to which the faculties of our colleges should give a more tolerant hearing. I shall but mention two of considerable promise and importance. One is the movement called "general education." General education is a new method of teaching old materials, but starting with the approach of the needs of youth. The idea has merit and especially so in a democracy where the principle of universal education is being steadily carried into more advanced years of school. The other curriculum development is that of providing a level of technical education between the professions and the vocations. The void being filled by these

programs is obvious from the tremendous growth of two-year colleges since the turn of the century. The response to the idea of coupling general and technical education in the new community college demonstrates that here is a dynamic field of education to which the private institutions have given little consideration.

I have noted that for the longer-run future there is a plentiful supply of potential college students, and that the college program today is rich in opportunity for further development. The remaining question I shall discuss is finances. Here I must admit at the outset that the financial problem of the private colleges is gravely serious. Indeed, the deficiency in the buying power of the dollar today and the struggle to secure adequate educational income are undoubtedly the causes of the main apprehensions of the colleges.

With this audience the financial problem hardly needs to be documented. The facts are well known: college plants—largely stationary in size and deteriorating steadily during the prolonged depression and war periods—have been supplemented with temporary shacks and barracks to carry the postwar load; and construction costs for new buildings are more than double what they were in the prewar years.

Operating costs, too, have mounted. Some colleges have kept their unit costs low by crowding the classrooms and by using graduate students as regular teachers. But this is not sound education. In the long run, there is no way to ignore the fact that good standards of teaching must be retrieved and that the unit cost of instruction will rise in proportion to the depreciation of the dollar. There is general belief that a high-cost level will continue indefinitely.

The private college is affected the most adversely of any institution or enterprise by this inflation because its income is not responsive to the changed conditions. The largest group of its students comes from middle-class and professional families. Their income is the slowest of any to adjust to the new level; hence they can ill afford large increases in tuitions and room and board charges. The endowments become deflated in value both in principal and in income. Gifts from alumni and friends are

analogous to commodities which sell at fixed prices. A person who has habitually donated \$100 a year is not eager to double it. Consequently, his gift today pays for about half the services that it formerly provided. And the larger donor is restricted in his impulse for generosity because of the diminished margin of income available to him after he has paid his taxes. In the present state of the world, there is little hope for materially lowered taxes.

To complete this picture of the misery of the college president, it should be added that the colleges now badly need large funds for additional purposes. The temporary buildings of the post-war period are wearing out and must be replaced to accommodate the new peak enrollment that will arrive ten years hence. This calls for a huge expenditure. Secondly, in view of the swelling demand of students from low-income families, the private colleges will need scholarship funds in amounts far beyond any previously raised, excepting only the federal aid to the veterans.

Having thus betrayed by sympathy with the college president who is nursing his grief over financial problems, I should like now to point out that the picture is not as dark as it seems at times. The wealth of this country is far greater than it has ever been previously. The national income in 1948 was 224 billion dollars as compared with 87 billion dollars in 1929—two and one-half times as much. According to the *Yearbook of Philanthropy, 1947-48*, the total contributions of philanthropic funds in the United States in 1945 was \$3,178,049,000. The average for the five-year period ending in 1945 was \$2,484,000,000. This average compares with that for the ten-year period 1930-40 of \$688,889,000, and for the ten-year period of the 1920's, approximately \$685,000,000. Thus, contributions during the first half of this decade were running three and one-half times what they were during each of the two preceding decades. Of course, the contributions during the war period were higher than normally could be expected. They do indicate, however, the power of the American people to give when there is sufficient cause.

Even the colleges and universities have not done so badly in recent years. John Price Jones reports that the total of gifts and

bequests to fifty-one colleges and universities in 1946-47 was \$65,199,000. In the previous year, it was slightly higher, but these two years compare with the average for the period from 1930 to 1940 of \$42,374,000 and the average of the preceding ten years of \$52,103,000. Total gifts and bequests reported by thirty-seven colleges and universities for 1947-48 showed a 14 percent increase over 1946-47. Dr. Arnaud Marts has recently estimated that more than \$150,000,000 has been contributed to independent colleges in 1948 and that this was an all-time high record. The previous high was reached in 1929-30, when college gifts reached the total of \$139,000,000.

If price levels were normal, this evidence of generous giving to the private colleges would be heart-warming. Under present circumstances, however, the gifts do not suffice to maintain standards and to continue the development of the institutions.

A problem confronting the private colleges is how to reach a wider clientele in their appeals for funds. If funds proportionate to the increased productive income of the country are to be obtained, means must be found to tap a wider base than the alumni, selected friends, and church organizations. Wealth being more widely distributed today, the colleges must recognize that they should have a wider assortment of friends. The boards of trustees of our private colleges are studded with persons from the wealthy, business, and professional classes. Representatives of labor need to be given a more responsible role in helping determine policy and program in higher education, and organized labor needs to be cultivated in the process of securing new friends. The record of labor in giving to the community and war chests has been substantial. Business corporations need also to provide more support for higher education. The financial support of either organized labor or of industry could have serious disadvantages for the colleges if they leaned too heavily upon these sources. But the colleges at present are a long way from being dependent on either of them.

The colleges individually do not have the means as Community Chests do of making mass appeals for funds. The Negro colleges, however, have been successful in organizing coopera-

tively an annual national drive. Other groups have done so on occasion. There would seem no sufficient reason why colleges should not join together in making nation-wide appeals for popular support. Ways can be found, as the Negro colleges have discovered, to apportion the funds received.

Perhaps the colleges should be less concerned about building up endowments and use greater persuasion to secure funds for current and emergency purposes. Inflation periods tend to defeat the purposes for which endowment funds were given or are used. It has been interesting to observe the growth and vitality of several new colleges or new programs, where all gifts received have been used currently to build or strengthen the program. I believe that a general policy of this type can be justified for any college.

There are examples among the private colleges where particular kinds of colleges have been making substantial headway in spite of the financial difficulties which have beset the colleges. One of these examples is the Catholic colleges. The Catholic colleges continue to have a dynamic growth. They are increasing in number, at least in New York State, at a considerably faster rate, than are other colleges. They have the advantage, of course, of operating at a more moderate cost than do other institutions, because of the devoted services of their teachers. They have, in addition, been alert to a new opportunity which the colleges with Protestant background have not sensed as well. Many new Catholic colleges are being founded in, or adjacent to, metropolitan areas. This enables them to serve students who can live at home and commute to the college, thus making college attendance possible for many of them.

In a few instances other private colleges and universities which are located in metropolitan centers are taking full advantage of the opportunity to serve the new flow of students from low-income families. The phenomenal growth of such institutions as Roosevelt College, Syracuse and New York Universities is an example. Sometimes the program includes evening courses which are advantageous to any students who need to be employed and which bring in good revenue to the college because of the more complete utilization of the faculty and plant.

An example of the colleges that have found a way to operate with good economy is the college that is using the cooperative plan of work and study. This plan was devised to contribute certain educational strengths. However, it has a distinct economy both for the students and the institution. By having a regular job for a portion of each year, the student incurs less expense at the college and has a productive income to help pay his way. The work-study plan helps the college financially because the college enrolls two student groups who alternate for periods of study at the college. This means that the plant and faculty each year serve two student groups, all of the members of which pay a normal tuition. The usual college operates with a budget under which tuition income pays about 50 percent of the cost. The college on the cooperative plan can function with tuition paying 75 percent or more of the cost.

There are ways in which the colleges and universities of a particular region can cooperate in sharing the educational facilities and programs of the area. Antioch College and Ohio State University have an arrangement under which Antioch provides research opportunities for the graduate students and the university accepts their dissertations toward the Ph.D. degree. This plan enables graduate students of the university to take full advantage of the specialized opportunity at the college. The college has the stimulating influence of this graduate and research work, and its faculty has access to the technical libraries and to unusual scientific equipment, such as the cyclotron, at the university.

School and Society on March 26 announced the establishment of a Midwest Inter-Library Center in Chicago. The center is to be a libraries' library, a cooperative enterprise for the improvement of library resources in the Middle West. It will not only have in-service research materials for the use of participating libraries, but it will also explore correlated bibliographical services. With substantial assistance from the Carnegie Corporation this library will serve the ten universities which have agreed to participate and others which are expected to join.

This research library is suggestive of other plans which would have possibilities for the smaller colleges. A working collection

of books of perhaps fifty to one hundred thousand volumes is adequate for the usual undergraduate college. Most colleges have the ambition to create a library well in excess of this size, but such a library is of principal value to advanced students and faculty members. The supplementary library service needed by these students and faculty might well be provided by a regional center. Perhaps the center could be located at a central university or perhaps it could be a branch or service of the state library.

Still another suggestion for cooperative planning would be to avoid duplication of the more expensive specialties on the graduate level. Every faculty that is genuinely alert will press its institution to do more graduate work. Frequently, the college can ill afford to finance it. The larger universities develop reputations for thorough work in certain fields. The colleges and universities interested in graduate work might well do more group planning to satisfy the needs of an area, but avoid unnecessary duplications and costs.

A possible source of income for the colleges and universities is through federal and state financial aid. This is a controversial subject, and everyone here is familiar with the pros and cons of the subject. The President's Commission recommended three kinds of federal aid: (1) scholarship aid to students, the money to be distributed through all colleges—private and public—on the basis of a formula, the student being free to attend a college of his choice; (2) payments to the colleges for services rendered based on a contract between the college and some agency of the federal government (the obvious illustrations would be scientific research projects or armed services training programs); and, (3) federal subsidy distributed through the states to the colleges defined by the particular state as being public institutions. Under this last recommendation direct subsidies would not be available to private colleges.

The GI program is an example of a federal scholarship program. It appears to work well for the colleges, and it has certainly opened the door to college for many young men and women. Scholarships are of value to the college in helping it

secure a better and more diversified student body. However, they do not assist the colleges financially because the college seldom charges a tuition that equals the cost of education.

Many private colleges already are securing research grants through federal agencies. A good example of the federal programs is the subsidization by the United States Public Health Service of graduate scholarships and research. The total this last year was \$25,385,000. The portion of this subsidy that goes to the schools is of incidental value to the whole educational program. Further federal aid along these lines should be welcomed by the colleges. It seems probable that the National Science Foundation bill will become law in the near future, and this will provide substantial subsidization of research.

The third recommendation that federal aid be extended to public colleges and universities affects the private colleges only indirectly. I am convinced that more public funds must be put into higher education either by the states or the federal government if we are to serve adequately the needs of all young people who desire and qualify for college education. Although I expect the private colleges to maintain and advance their present position in terms of enrollments and quality of program, the jobs of building the new facilities that are needed and of financing the programs on the subprofessional level, and for the benefit of students from low-income families, are so huge there seems no reasonable expectation that private philanthropy can fully meet the needs. I think, too, that more of the cost of medical education, which is becoming such a heavy drain on the resources of private universities, needs to be borne by the state and federal governments.

Although I believe that public funds should not be used for direct subsidy of private institutions, I think it is highly important for state and federal governments to maintain conditions that encourage them. Liberal tax exemptions should be continued and generous deductions for gifts should be permitted on income and inheritance tax returns.

In New York State the question has arisen whether the proposed community and other public colleges will compete with and

undermine the private institutions. If the plans as envisioned by the State University Commission work out, the new institutions should not and need not compete with existing ones. The public community colleges will be two-year colleges offering general and technical courses, and preparing largely for the sub-professions. This curriculum is not generally being provided by the private institutions. The existing four-year colleges, private and public, are probably sufficient to meet the need for four-year programs, possibly excepting a very few locations where there is not now sufficient coverage, but assuming a more generous state scholarship program. It is assumed that at least 20 percent of the graduates of the two-year colleges will want to transfer, many of them using state scholarships, to four-year institutions. Probably the net effect on the enrollment of the existing colleges will be an increase in the enrollment in the upper years and some decrease in the first two years. This will give the faculties of these institutions a better composition of student body. Undoubtedly under this program the enrollment in public institutions in the state will increase greatly, but the enrollment in the private institutions should not decrease. With the surge of new enrollment that is expected when existing financial and other barriers to students are removed, there should be enough students for all.

The private colleges should not lose sight of the advantages they possess—the freedom, the flexibility they have in the use of funds, the unlimited geographical area they can serve, and the emphasis they can place upon quality of work and service to the individual students. These colleges, so many of which were founded by the churches during the last century, have had a vigorous growth and have demonstrated great staying power through adverse times. Originally they possessed a missionary zeal which has been diminished now that they have attained a degree of academic respectability and have cut the ties that originally nourished them. They still educate, and they educate with better academic standards, but their social purposes are not so clear or as intense as they had been. I am not suggesting that these colleges look upon this earlier period with nostalgia.

They had hard times then. Some of them had to close down completely during the Civil War, but the point is they had the strength to survive. They have had their ups and downs during this century, too. Writing about the decade ending in 1936-37, Trevor Arnett said, "It seems unnecessary . . . to demonstrate the seriousness of the financial and enrollment problems which confront the independent colleges. Administrators of these colleges and their friends rightly view the situation with deep concern." We know now that the predictions of failure of these colleges during the depression were premature. The small private college composed of a devoted faculty, living close to the soil, and serving the needs of its region or of its constituency, is the hardest institution of any to kill. Its very struggles for life give it strength. The larger and stronger of the private colleges and universities clearly rival in intellectual attainments the best institutions in the world.

The private colleges, however, do need to sense more fully their opportunity and their mission in the world of today. New forces are at work in this democratic country and most of them basically are sound. They are aimed at bringing to a more complete realization in living the democratic ideals of America and in attempting to reach a common basis for world cooperation and order.

Toward this end we need to cultivate the whole of our intellectual resources; and colleges and universities have a great role to play. The private colleges may not receive all of the funds they desire, but if they really have something to sell, the American people will respond with support. Irrespective of finances, and looking beyond their more immediate troubles, the colleges will have riches of students and of program which will exceed their wildest dreams of the past.

Does Your University Need a Labor Institute?

By H. FABIAN UNDERHILL

AFTER THE FLURRY of labor or labor-management institutes set up in 1946 and 1947 by many universities, both public and private, there has been a period of relative quiet on the labor-education front. Perhaps some institutions have decided to wait, perhaps some have decided against formal participation in the movement, perhaps others simply lack funds and personnel—if they are state institutions, this matter may largely be decided for them.

Nevertheless, on the assumption that the matter is still under discussion or will ultimately be forced to the attention of other universities and colleges, it may be well to list some of the items that should be considered before a favorable decision is reached. The items here mentioned are primarily of concern to state-supported institutions, but some points are applicable to private colleges. Since almost the only opposition to a management institute arises from already-existing schools of business, the emphasis will be on whether special services should be extended to labor groups.

LABOR OPPOSITION OR DISTRUST

Within organized labor there is some distrust of our universities. This may be aimed at some one or two institutions, but is often generalized to include all of them. Whether or not this distrust is merited is less important than the fact that it exists. In cases where it is now or has been merited, the difficulty of its removal is merely aggravated.

If the university is not dependent upon public funds, it need consider only whether its particular ideals of service call for the extra effort of changing this attitude. A state institution, on the other hand, faces a more serious problem. If organized labor has much influence in the legislature, it is important to placate the unions; if employer or anti-union groups are dom-

inant, the reverse must be true. Yet it seems implicit in any state university (and even explicit in the charters of some) that its duty is to offer educational service to all groups in the state, whether those groups are popular or unpopular. In one way or another these people pay taxes: income, sales, gasoline, cigarette, property. To pay for public education without sharing in the results may augment the distrust.

What are the grounds for this attitude within the ranks of labor and among many leaders? First and foremost is that peculiar combination of admiration and fear on the part of most uneducated persons for those with more formal education. Is this an attitude of one educational "class" toward another "superior class," or is it a fear that one's ideas may be changed? The writer does not know. But while it is true that many successful men and women have little formal education and honestly feel no lack, it seems equally true that others feel a sense of awe in the presence of those with more education.

A second point is perhaps only a corollary of the one just mentioned. There is the belief that college teachers, though possibly good in their own academic fields, cannot know much of the practical phases of unionism and, therefore, have little to offer labor in the way of education, aside from such restricted fields as public speaking. This is felt even by many who are not in awe of a university faculty. Frequently it results in a "show-me" attitude that must be dispelled before effective education can take place. Often there is a chip on the shoulders of such persons when they first meet a "professor." Sometimes this belief is correct; there are teachers, even of labor subjects, who know little of everyday union affairs. Sometimes the teacher knows almost as much as the unionist. And in some subjects that today are of concern to labor groups—such matters as inflation, race relations, international finance—the teacher may have a great deal to offer. Perhaps some of this particular distrust is due to previous experience with poor instructors; that is, it is a result of inability to teach this type of student rather than lack of knowledge.

Another criticism of the faculty is less often heard: that uni-

versity teachers tend naturally to be conservative, as a result partly of their training, and partly of the social groups from which they are drawn. If this is true, a pro-labor viewpoint is not to be expected. We might well accept both premise and conclusion and still find room for our services in the field of labor. Many conservative teachers are undoubtedly sympathetic to the labor movement, even when they are not pro-labor in the sense of accepting all labor activities at the union's valuation. And it is no doubt wholesome for workers to find some of their activities objectively criticized in an atmosphere of discussion rather than argument. For though their ideas may be changed not one iota, yet, by being forced to defend themselves logically (and without heat), they will the better present their views during negotiations.

The faculty is often criticized by unionists for the general failure of university teachers to join a union (preferably the American Federation of Teachers). Teachers join nearly everything else: professional societies, social groups, welfare bodies. Yet, by and large, their individualism holds to the belief that they can acquire tenure (seniority) and promotion more satisfactorily by their own efforts than by forming groups for economic betterment. Inevitably some unionists believe that faculty failure to organize is the result of university pressure; perhaps there may even be cases where this can be proved. Fortunately, as long as the university employs unionists in construction, there will be a nucleus of unionists favorable to the institution. If the university has a liaison agent to discuss education with unions, part of the distrust may also be removed by his carrying a paid-up union card; this needs to be in an AFL affiliate because AFL members distrust CIO unionists more than the other way around.

A whole group of criticisms that lead to distrust is aimed at universities in general. One of the most common is the lack of labor representation upon boards of trustees. The criticism is based upon fact, but whether it is valid is a moot point. On the one side, it can be maintained that a board of trustees does not and should not represent groups of the population, but that, rather, each member should consider himself a representative

of the public at large. On the other side is the argument that no one can completely divorce himself from his background and is likely to consider first those groups with which he has had most intimate contact. Even if each member strives to act as a public representative under these conditions, it would follow that the point of view of labor (and especially of organized labor) would not be adequately presented and discussed. Unfortunately, it happens in many private colleges that trustees are appointed more for their ability to acquire funds for the institution than for the general public services they might perform.

It is also obvious to workers that while the larger universities have established special schools or colleges to teach the techniques of farmers, doctors, lawyers, businessmen, musicians, yet there is no public institution with a similar college for unionists, with the possible exception of the New York State School of Industrial and Labor Relations at Cornell University. In some cases with truth, in some with misunderstanding, labor believes that these specialized schools teach not only techniques but also attitudes ascribed to the groups served. Labor therefore discounts the defense that universities also offer courses in labor economics, for even where these are not in the school of business, they are held to have a public (neutral) rather than pro-labor approach. Short of actually establishing such a college, there seem to be two answers that satisfy labor. The first is to produce evidence that regardless of the content of these special colleges they all follow a neutral approach; if evidence is not available, this answer is two-edged. The other retort is to inquire how many unionists would indeed take up residence so as to provide enough students for the desired school—probably so few that even a full-time curriculum in an existing college could not be maintained.

A sounder complaint is that if the state subsidizes the education of students on the campus (in addition to physical facilities), it should further subsidize labor education. To the extent that workers or their children take regular residential courses, they of course receive the same subsidy as do other students. Thus the problem changes to a question as to whether special groups

should receive any subsidy. If they attend a short course on the campus, should the university provide cheap instruction either by freeing faculty from other duties or by paying them extra for the extra work—or should the group itself pay the full cost of such instruction? Should the university pay part of the costs of extension courses, lecture series, and the like, when they are held off campus, or should such education be completely charged to those who presumably benefit? Obviously this brings us to the field of adult education as a whole, of which labor education is only a part, even if an important part. The answers to these questions must, therefore, depend upon the philosophy of the state concerning adult education. If adult education is to be subsidized, then labor education must be subsidized. If only certain types of adult education are considered so important as to be worth a subsidy, then the pros and cons of labor education need to be considered. For our purpose it is not necessary to solve the problem; it is essential that the university be able to answer the complaint.

One more criticism, sometimes with too much truth, is leveled against the universities. Not only is there the feeling, already mentioned, that universities discourage unionism among faculty members, there is also the belief that some universities have in the past rid themselves of pro-labor instructors. Even if it is untrue that they were discharged for such attitudes, even though other unpublicized incidents may have been the cause, the belief exists. In cases where the circumstantial evidence is strong, it may require several years for an institution to live down an unenviable reputation.

In addition to these eight criticisms or reasons for distrust, older unions that have grown slowly feel that they have little need for educational assistance since they have readily absorbed new members. Mainly they want vocational education for apprenticeship training and to enable older members to learn new processes. Such courses are better given by the public school system in cities where adult education has been developed. These unions have little use for any other type of education. This apathy is difficult to overcome. It requires a "selling" job that

few educational institutions are equipped to undertake. Sometimes a union leader does not have a clear understanding of the wants of members, yet it is hardly tactful to tell him so or to go over his head to the members he leads. Such apathy is one of the most discouraging phases of all education.

Less common is the active opposition of a few union leaders toward any education offered to the members. This is based on their feeling that, since they are running the union, the less education offered to the rank and file, the less likely is there to be opposition to the existing regime. Fortunately, very few locals are in this unhappy position.

OPPOSITION FROM OTHER SOURCES

There are, of course, other arguments against university work in labor education. Not all the distrust and opposition lie with organized labor. There are employers who feel that, instead of giving unionists a better grounding in the techniques and limitations of collective bargaining, the universities should offer no assistance whatever. To this argument the obvious retorts are, first, that as long as universities sponsor business schools that help employers they are equally bound to offer work that will help employees; second, that better all-round training in negotiations can help both sides of the bargaining table by not merely strengthening one side, but showing where compromises may be or must be made; and, third, that general education in economics or speech or political science is the right of every citizen, even if it is sponsored by a union. A much stronger point urged by employers is the assertion that labor education should also be offered to unorganized labor. In principle, this is true: education should not be prohibited to anyone who can (*a*) bear the cost and (*b*) absorb enough that he will not retard the rest of the class. Though much depends upon the types of education made available (resident institutes, extension classes, and the like), it is also true that the exigencies of the economic system are such that negotiations for special classes must sometimes be carried on with an organized group—the unorganized

are not often so vocal that their desires can be ascertained in advance. Perhaps the importance of the employer opposition lies in its possible effect upon a conservative legislature discussing the appropriation of funds for running a state university.

It is also wise to recognize opposition within the universities themselves. Aside from possible objections from conservative members of a board of trustees, there are faculty members who are not convinced that labor education is a legitimate university function. Many of them do not, of course, believe in any form of education other than standard academic courses—to them adult education in any form is anathema. Others, though accepting some parts of an adult education program, distrust organized labor as much as organized labor distrusts them. Some are afraid of classroom contacts. Usually this attitude disappears quite early after such contact. It should also be recognized that workers' education contributes to adult education as a whole. Labor's needs are so pressing that those engaged in this type of education are compelled to improve their techniques and thus tend to do more experimenting with methods of instruction.

Still another group feels that the faculty knows best what is good for all students and that, therefore, the university should unilaterally decide on course subjects and course content and offer these to all comers regardless of the desires of any group of students (including unionists). If our faculties were actually trained in making up curriculums and if, in addition, they had experience of the needs of unionists, then much might be said in favor of this attitude. But as long as university instructors receive their training only in course content and not in methods of instruction and administration, as long as so many cling to their ivory tower or seek merely the opinions of business and professional men regarding preparatory courses, just so long will the faculty be actually unable to give satisfaction to these other groups. It must also be admitted that among the faculty group that is sympathetic to labor education is an element of fear lest they be accused of being pro-labor merely on account of their participation in this field.

POSSIBLE SERVICES TO LABOR

The most recent thorough survey of what universities are doing in the field of labor education is Caroline Ware's *Labor Education in Universities*, published by the American Labor Education Service in 1946. There have been many changes since that time. What are some of these specialized efforts?

They include such diverse offerings as labor-management curriculums leading to a degree for resident students, with or without special summer practice in personnel offices, in union offices, or in government offices such as the employment service; non-degree residence curriculums extending over one or more years, usually subsidized by university or outside funds; nondegree short-residence curriculums of two weeks or less, either specially arranged in consultation with a specific group such as a state federation of labor or a national union, or decided by the faculty and offered freely to all comers; conferences of union leaders, often over a week end, with or without emphasis on education; preparation of textual materials for labor-education courses, especially for education given in union halls; research into labor problems, often at the request of a union group; lectures or film-showings in union halls; academic courses in extension centers; short courses in extension centers, courses planned unilaterally without labor suggestions; advice to unions preparing their own educational programs, especially advice to locals; publication of a journal or of special papers in the field.

This is not an exhaustive list; it is merely suggestive of some of the work being undertaken. The possibilities mentioned are not, of course, mutually exclusive; in many cases a single university will be giving most of the work listed. Some of the activities are obviously of general, rather than of labor, interest, for example, the academic courses. To appeal to any specific group, such courses must contain materials that that group *wants*, regardless of consideration for its needs. Any services must be offered attractively, just as candy-covered medicine is prepared for children and for many adults. Improperly prepared courses will not be acceptable.

ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

What has already been discussed covers most of the problems involved in deciding *whether* to enter the field of labor education. The difficulties mentioned are not universal. They boil down to distrust, opposition, and apathy. Whatever the causes, there are specific remedies. The work needs to be done. Even those who are most impatient with labor—especially with organized labor—often express the wish that workers had more formal education. But if the work is to be done, it needs to be well done.

Let us assume that, despite the difficulties involved, a university decides to enter the field. Its first administrative difficulty is likely to be the need for more funds. Usually any extra work has to be paid for: extra teaching, extra travel, extra materials, extra use of facilities. There are groups that can well afford to pay all the costs involved. Some of the larger local unions can do so. But the majority of locals are small and receive only small monthly dues—popular opinion to the contrary. Only if several such locals combine their resources can they afford a lecture series, for instance. As far as individuals are concerned, some skilled workers in times of full employment can easily afford the necessary fees to cover costs; but the average worker with a family to support can ill afford the expense. Where a residence course—even a short affair—is concerned, the costs to the university will be only a part of the finances; individuals or locals must also meet the costs of food, housing, and especially of lost wages. The solutions are varied. In the absence of federal or state appropriations for labor education, something can be done for a few individuals by using the aid of the Veterans Administration. An effort to persuade small locals to combine their resources, perhaps through the medium of a city central body, can help. The university may be able to absorb overhead costs. Some instructors may volunteer their services gratis, though in general it is poor policy to insist on extra work without additional pay. Some international unions may be willing to pay part of the costs. In a very few cases there are employers

who believe that education can so much improve industrial relations that they are willing to contribute; however, this source of funds must usually be tapped by the unions themselves.

Of course, the funds needed will to some extent vary with the type of service offered. Residence curriculums are normally the most expensive; they also reach only a small, though important, group, partly because of the cost and partly because of the limitation of physical facilities. Only if this group in turn becomes teachers of those it represents can the service be fully justified. It is cheaper to send an instructor out to the students, possibly in their own halls.

Assuming that the services will involve course work, there is next the problem of the type of course. Unions generally want some or all of three types of nonvocational courses. First are the tool courses, such as speech, parliamentary law, accounting. Often these can be presented in the usual academic manner with but slight adaptations to the specific group. Second come courses that make direct appeal to unionists as such; they are, therefore, in greater demand for the immediacy of their application. Included in this group would be courses in labor (or union) history, collective bargaining, steward training, and so forth. Most universities do not have ready-made courses in these subjects; they must be made up to fit the group. The third set of courses concerns more general background in the social studies: economics, sociology, political science, psychology, and others. Though almost every university has available such materials and teachers to handle them, the full-fledged academic course is too much for most union groups; the regular courses must be tailored to meet the needs of the new students. This means work—often hard work—for those involved. It will necessitate close contact with labor leaders and constant revision in the light of classroom experience.

Not only must courses be prepared. Effective teachers must be provided. It is one thing to present a long course and another to cover only the high lights in a few discussions; ideally there *should* be no letdown in any course—there *must* be none in a short course. It is one thing to teach regular university students

who, after the first few months, are expected to do their own studying; it is different with a group of adults who are out of practice even in reading and who have little time for homework. Even the average university instructor may quail at this. Perhaps what is needed will be good instructors who can learn the materials rather than scholars who are not proficient in teaching. This is not to deny that the best combination is the scholar who is also a good teacher. But do we have enough of these? Certainly instructors in labor education must be prepared for more discussion than in undergraduate courses and must be flexible enough to change their methods of presentation and even their material according to the needs of their group.

Another problem, perhaps recognized as a result of Army training methods during World War II but re-emphasized by the growth of labor education, is the provision of training aids wherever possible. The term is broad enough to include everything from blackboards and textbooks through motion pictures to the most elaborate activated mock-ups. The best instructors may be successful without aids; could they be better with them? Could the weaker teachers become successful with their help? But few faculty members can make their own training aids. They need help in this and help in spreading their use. They need not merely the passive help that makes these aids available, but active assistance that goes out and offers to help in both planning and execution.

But what if funds, courses, teachers, and training aids are all provided? How do we get the students? The first and most obvious way is by advertising. It is, in fact, the only way of reaching unorganized persons. But to be effective, advertising needs constant reiteration. A more immediately fruitful method is the use of a liaison man with a union card, a man who can personally present the work to the groups most interested, who can persuade the leaders to call the university services to the attention of union members. A good liaison man can do more than this; he can also materially aid in the choosing of courses and course materials, both from his own insight into labor needs and from his ability to draw opinions out of the union leaders.

Purposely the most complicated, if not the most difficult, administrative problem has been saved to the last. Who is to administer the program? For if it is to be more than a hit-and-miss affair, it must be carefully administered. Is this the function of a department? If so, which? Does economics have a claim merely because it teaches labor economics? Or should the services be under one of the schools or colleges of the university? Perhaps liberal arts because it includes most of the social studies and tool courses? Part of the answer is plain. Unless some one department or school teaches all, or nearly all, the subjects to be offered in labor education, no one school or department should be in charge. The control (whatever it may be called, and "institute" seems currently to be the most popular title) must transcend departments and schools; it must have authority to cross such lines. Perhaps a new organization must be set up. However, in many universities there are already divisions that offer outside services, such as correspondence courses or other types of adult education. This is one logical setting for a labor institute. Probably no one answer will satisfy the diverse administrative organizations of our universities. Even if it logically could do so, no doubt there must be compromises to meet the desires of boards of trustees or of powerful deans. But unless there are to be constant administrative changes as the institute grows, unless one is to ignore the hurt feelings of those who feel a loss of prestige because of such changes, the first setting of the new organization should be close to its ultimate niche.

Essentials of Effective Management¹

By CHARLES D. FLORY

MANAGEMENT takes place through some type of organizational structure. Whenever one man joins another in an enterprise, an organizational pattern must emerge. One person will lead and the other follow even though they operate as partners and share equally in the financial rewards. True, they may change roles when confronted by different problems, but an informal organizational structure, which is based upon factors of personal dominance, will exist. The inevitability that management must flow through some type of organizational structure indicates the necessity for considering what management seeks to achieve through organization.

The purpose of organization is to structure policies, people, and practices in a way that encourages maximum participation of each individual, that minimizes duplication of effort and overlapping responsibilities, and that maintains a mutuality which insures collaboration. These generalized goals of sound organization specifically include: policy, people, mutuality, responsibility, communication, finance, and maturation.

POLICY

The primary function of managers operating at the administrative level is to make judgments. The effectiveness of top-level managers depends upon their speed and accuracy in making judgments. The future of an enterprise and the happiness of its personnel depend to a large extent upon the caliber of the men who occupy the administrative chairs from which critical judgments are made.

The major area calling for judgments by top management relates to the policies and the philosophy under which an organization operates. The goals, aims, and values to be achieved

¹ EDITOR'S NOTE.—This article is written primarily from the point of view of a business organization. It has sufficient relevance, however, to the management of an educational institution to justify in the editor's opinion its presentation to the readers of THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD.

through the organization not only must be clearly understood but also must be clearly and definitely described. Practices and procedures can be worked out with validity only when sound policies have been established. Basic judgments or decisions must be made concerning: (1) the kind and quality of services to be rendered; (2) the kind, quantity, and quality of personnel required to render these services; (3) the rewards to be given employees for the services rendered; and (4) the action required to keep the concern as a whole integrated and oriented toward its goals.

The decisions made in the above areas will set the pattern for action. The pattern will determine the direction in which the organization should travel. Too many executives, in their desire for action, become so engrossed in keeping up with the parade that they fail to consider where the parade is going. Although motion is no guarantee of progress, we dare not rely upon our political heritage or our industrial record to insure the necessary vision at the management level. Politically we reiterate our belief in democracy; we talk much about freedom of thought, freedom of speech, and an economic system of free enterprise. But we are so prone to fall into the habit of defending these ideas verbally that we seldom expend the effort required to emerge with a positive set of beliefs and attitudes which point the way to genuine democratic living. Those who are repeatedly looking to the past for guidance find it impossible to keep their eyes focused upon the future. A historical search for solutions will be helpful only if we are able to see the principles beneath the facts which can be translated into trends for future action. If history teaches us anything, it indicates that the radicals of yesterday are often the liberals of today, while the radicals of today are likely to be the liberals of tomorrow. Democracy was a radical idea two hundred years ago and is still a liberal idea in some of our social practices. If the leaders, either politically or industrially, are conservative, the followers can scarcely be more than reactionaries, unless of course, the leadership degenerates to the point where the led become so frustrated that they break out in open rebellion against their leadership.

It is imperative, therefore, if we are to have real managerial leadership, that a definite course of action be plotted so that individuals who are affected by the organizational structure will be able to reach the goals which they seek.

Making decisions about policy, setting the course for action, does not happen by chance. It is hard work. It requires the ability and effort of capable people. Our industrial journey on the present sea of economic confusion will never be more than a tour in the fog until the best possible brains at the management level set themselves to the task of clearly defining principles, goals, and values which can be stated as company policy.

PEOPLE

When we know where we are going and why, our next problem is to make sure that we have available the kind of people through whom our goals can be achieved. Manpower is not only the most important, but also the most valuable, asset of a company. The human factors in business are so central, yet so often out of focus, that we tend to neglect them in our thinking and planning. When a building is constructed unsoundly, physical laws invariably reveal the weakness; an overloaded medicine soon fails; when laws of chemistry are violated, explosions may occur. Similar violations of human factors are less easily checked, for the action is delayed. We may escape penalty for years. When the reaction does occur, we are so far from its origin that our judgments as to causes often lead us to accept a less important but more immediate cue. We are prone to blame economic conditions, labor problems, unfair competition, or political bungling for manpower failures.

It is a must for those charged with organizational matters to look well at their manpower problems. A good organization will remain strong only if it has a carefully selected, well-placed, and adequately stimulated working force. Selection and placement of all personnel should be made with reference to cooperation, job performance, growth, and personal satisfactions. Stimulation can be provided both by cross-fertilization of ideas at all levels and by direct leadership at the top level.

Top-level executives have frequently reached their positions by chance, by power manipulations, or by dictatorial succession. These fallacious practices in developing the management team are being corrected in progressive companies by applying the criterion of merit in selecting executive personnel. In our attempt to correct for dictatorial management, we have sometimes moved so far in the direction of management by conference that no one is charged directly with responsibility for line action. The mere addition of numbers at the executive level does not in itself solve management problems. We fall too often into the trap of appointing a committee, then increasing its size, and finally appointing a committee to study the committee. If a note is too high to be reached by the average soprano, it cannot be reached by adding another soprano with equal range. If the leadership required exceeds that possessed by a given executive, getting more help of the same order will not provide the solution desired. The mere addition of talent of the same quality will not get out work of an administrative type. The right people must be selected—people who have the talents to do the things required by the job.

MUTUALITY

Even though all jobs within an organization are staffed by people capable of making sound judgments and initiating action within the framework of established policy, the results obtained are likely to be abortive unless the management team has developed habits of genuine cooperation. The lack of collaborative behavior is seen most often in egocentric, individualistic, or dogmatic action among top-level executives. Cooperation to the extent of mutuality implies the ability of the manager to manage without displaying his authority. When real mutuality pervades an administrative group, few votes will need to be taken or few directives issued to translate the judgments of the group into action.

Competent leaders of men are able to develop teams that pull the load. They do not pose as giants who seek to pull the load by their own strength and in addition to drag the team with them.

There are many ways to foster team action, but the following have been found to be particularly important: (1) giving credit where it is due; (2) taking responsibility for one's own mistakes; (3) criticizing sparingly but fairly and objectively; (4) developing a sense of personal worth; (5) respecting lines of authority; and (6) acting appropriately with and toward others.

The real organizational problems are most often found in the intangibles—areas having to do with feelings. They are infrequently centered in material things. Consequently, top executives are becoming aware that nearly 90 percent of their time is spent with human problems and less than 10 percent with technical skills. The cold technologist may run a profitable business for a span of years, but he is unlikely, from a human relations point of view, to run a successful business. The Utopian do-gooder, on the other hand, is also unlikely to go down in history as a successful executive. The latter is too often caught basking in the sunlight of his paternalism while his company drifts into financial trouble. There is nothing which delays maturity and blights the growth of mutuality so completely as paternalism. The paternalistic manager resorts to devices which concede a limited share of responsibility but at the same time artificially retain control. He makes sure that the benefits yielded in no way jeopardize the special privilege and advantage of the management group.

The second decade of the present century witnessed a concerted effort to apply the scientific method to every phase of American life. We spoke of "the science of education," "the science of behavior," and even "scientific management." The belief arose that the mere addition of the word "science" or "scientific" served as a corrective for such subjective factors as feelings and attitudes. We now know that few problems are solved merely by adding labels. Roethlisberger in *Management and Morale* makes this point so well: "If one allowed another person to talk to him informally for an hour, one was perhaps a 'friend' or an 'educator'; formally, for one to three hours, with a questionnaire to boot, a 'vocational guider,' a 'public opinion poller,' or a 'social psychologist'; for two or three hours,

with true and false tests thrown in, a 'psychometrist'; for two years without interruption, a 'psychoanalyst.' Of course, if in the process one could compute a standard deviation for those verbal responses, one was 'scientific.'"²

"Scientific" is a good word but a solution that solves both the problems of management and the managed must look through at least two sets of lenses. Those who rely solely upon technology and science for solutions to management's problems have a mere 10 percent probability of success. Those who look first to cooperation, collaboration, and mutuality are working with odds of nine to one in their favor.

RESPONSIBILITY

The need for a closely knit organization becomes more crucial as an enterprise increases in size or complexity. With the rise of industry, this need has most often been met by an authoritative pattern of organization which was copied both from church and from state. We have emerged with an administrative structure, therefore, of superiors-subordinates, management-workers. This condition, plus the constant struggle of men to satisfy their changing needs in face of adversity, becomes one of today's major management problems.

Some executives, who are aware of the clashes within a rigid, authoritarian organization, have gone to the other extreme by allowing indefinite assignments, looseness of structure, vagueness of budgets, and control by indirection. While rigidity inevitably leads to clashes between management and the managed, indefiniteness, although intended to stimulate strong men, leads head on into tensions. Such feelings produce frustrations that tend to cause everyone to settle into a sea of mediocrity. The competent man, when confronted by a frustrating organizational structure, either becomes emotionally disorganized or seeks his satisfactions outside his job assignment. The problem resolves itself, therefore, into discerning how to get the organizational structure into the groove without developing ruts.

²F. J. Roethlisberger, *Management and Morale* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1941), p. 164.

One of the common faults in any type of organization is the failure to allocate responsibility and authority with clarity and definiteness. Each key man's duties must be defined so clearly that he understands his relationship to his associates both in the formal and in the informal organization. This step also implies that with each responsibility established, sufficient authority will be delegated to get the work done.

Too often the formal allocation of responsibility has been so poorly or so inadequately done that the enterprise is actually run by an informal structure. The informal structure tends to emerge on the basis of compatibility of personnel. It is necessary to look carefully, therefore, at both the formal and the informal patterns of organization to understand fully their effect upon the workers. Seldom, even in the best organizations, is there complete agreement between what a man thinks he does, and what he actually does. It is possible, and in most instances desirable, to grow the structure of an organization through emergence. Only confusion will result when responsibilities are incorrectly or inadequately defined. It is management's duty to define a job instead of expecting the employee both to perform the work and ferret out what his work should be.

Sound thinking and planning in these areas help grow a healthy organization. A healthy enterprise not only develops and holds the loyalties of its present staff, but also makes such an impact upon outsiders that good men are attracted from other organizations. Maintaining strength is easier than recapturing it once it is lost. Although a healthy organism is in a constant state of change, it keeps a wholesome equilibrium by maintaining balance among its component parts. Business enterprises fluctuate with the times, but seek to provide equilibrium through a structured organization which is not synonymous with an organizational chart. Organizational charts merely record the way an enterprise functioned today and from which it will develop or regress tomorrow. The chart is only a map, never the journey.

Actually, in point of time, defining and allocating responsibilities should follow immediately the establishment of policies. It is more difficult to define a job, once duties have been assumed

by accretion, than to do so before a man is placed in the position. Pressure often has to be exerted to get a man to relinquish a duty, even though logic dictates that he should, when he has been exercising it over a period of time. The difficulties in this respect should not deter us from action. Sound organization must emerge even though surgery is needed to achieve it. Soundness of administration will never be achieved until responsibilities are clearly defined, definitely allocated, and adequately communicated.

COMMUNICATION

Superior thinking and expert planning have little value until they have been communicated. Failure to communicate may result from many conditions: lack of effort, unconcern, barriers in the organizational channels, semantics. Professionally and technically trained people often allow their technology to lead them into a verbal fog that contains many ideas but conveys few. The industrial leader often communicates his judgments effectively through directives, but fails to sense the attitudinal rebounds generated in the persons most directly affected.

A major function of an organizational plan is to provide a two-way channel of communication that encourages maximum utilization of individual potentiality. That which comes down from the top seldom encounters trouble in reaching the last man in the line because that which comes from the top is usually concrete and tangible. That which should come up from below is often dissipated in the telling or dams up against administrative blocks because of its intangibility—it is composed largely of sentiments, moods, and feelings. Unless the channel is clear and assistance provided along the way, these feelings seldom reach the top or reach it with such distortion that the action initiated falls far short of the mark.

The administrator needs to sharpen his techniques for effective communication. He needs, also, to give serious thought to ways and means of keeping the channel open from the bottom to the top. The business efficiency aspects of management are well known even to the small operator, but the strivings of the man-

aged are not so well known especially as they relate to the upward flow of information. We must develop a sensitivity to the efforts of all employees to carve out for themselves both a sense of security and a feeling of self-realization. The former is most likely to occur when the worker operates in an atmosphere of approval with sufficient knowledge both as to what is expected of him and the direction he is to go so that frustration disappears. The competent worker who has security is "collaborative and friendly, yet genuinely self-assertive." The lack of security often produces a blind fight for freedom resulting in fear and hatred. Self-realization emerges through participation that allows for initiative, self-expression, and the assumption of responsibility. One must feel secure, however, before he can make strides in self-realization. The insecure will not take responsibility, for they are engaged in a battle for freedom. The administrator can never deal with such problems as these until an adequate, two-way channel of communication has been established. No matter how skilled the diagnostician, his skill is of naught until he has appropriate means for eliciting symptoms.

FINANCE

A mere psychologist has difficulty in being profound about fiscal matters when our expert economists are so confused about the road ahead. We have almost come to expect in our present social order that all enterprises except private business have a right to operate without regard to solvency. The trend toward narrow margins of profit for business in general, through regulation, indicates that all other agencies which depend upon business profits for support must set their houses in order through sound business administration.

Some industries have been successfully financed without regard to social welfare, but it is becoming increasingly difficult to take money from intelligent people unless the product or services meet basic human needs, impulses, or wants. The more nearly, therefore, an enterprise contributes to a basic need, the greater its chance for growth and survival.

It is a foregone conclusion that any business in a competitive

society must make a profit to survive. This point is so well known by fiscally minded people that we will pass quickly to another fundamental purpose of a business enterprise. The close attention to profits at the expense of everything else will develop a focal length in the lens which is no longer adequate to view the whole field. There can be no profits, in fact no business, apart from people; for people set the values, create the demand, produce the product, and, in general, make the business.

Business must be managed so well financially, and otherwise, that a significant way of life for all employees is provided. Fiscal economy in no way gives administrators license to look upon the employee as a mere commodity. It is this view of people that has led to unionism, which in many instances has become a blot upon the management picture. We must look, therefore, to the needs of the worker in developing our financial policies. The worker wants more than money, but in a capitalistic economy his needs cannot be met without adequate regard for compensation. The worker in general wants (1) to belong, (2) to gain prestige, (3) to exist—self-preservation, and (4) to satisfy his physical urges. While these wants will never be fully realized through mere monetary rewards, they cannot be fulfilled without financial consideration. Horace Mann, in 1858, pointed up this issue so well in talking about teachers' salaries: "When it shall be found that a man's natural appetites for food and beverage shall die out one after another as he enlists in more sacred callings, it will be good evidence that a life devoted to holy labor should forego those natural supplies which it no longer needs . . . the most exalted piety will not be a sufficiently tenacious cement to hold body and soul together, without a little alloy of animal food; or at least, without some chemical amalgam whose principal ingredients are bread and butter." Not only must people be paid, but they should be paid in proportion to the service rendered. Any plan of compensation which deviates significantly from this principle can lead only to dissatisfaction.

Fiscal considerations demand, therefore, that the enterprise be profitable, with expenditures in the several areas appropriate to the character of the business, consistent with the needs of

employees, and rewarding to individuals for their contribution by jobs and by abilities.

MATURATION

Organizations as well as individuals strive for maturity. The essence of maturity as a goal for administrators means organizational and operational stability. The fluidity of our social structure and especially the fluctuations in our industrial order have led many critics to think of our country and its people as basically immature. Being immature is normal for individuals, organizations, and nations at the beginning. But as individuals pass from childhood to adolescence to adulthood, so should organizations move naturally through their developmental stages to a stabilized, mature state of operation.

Maturity and stability as used above mean the ability of an organization to respond to a variety of stimuli without resorting either to a fight or a flight from problems. Immaturity predisposes one to react defensively either by conflict or by evasion. When an organization is mature, it is able to deal with problems objectively. Its interests are broader and deeper than mere survival. It is able to operate with a degree of independence of its origins. It acts with confidence, yet with due humility and real cooperativeness. It maintains a firm sense of reality. It is always flexible and adaptable, but it acts consistently in line with its purposes and its goals. It avoids expediency to gain short-range advantages for its corporate structure or for the administrative group which directs its destiny. It is able to produce more than it needs for survival; to give more than it gets. In short, maturity within an enterprise insures an awareness of the common good and the general welfare of the society which it serves.

There are dangers in reaching maturity prematurely. When growth ceases, decay begins unless steps are taken to maintain and utilize the vitality which characterizes youth. A young organization is usually courageous, competitive, and vigorous for it is in a struggle both for survival and for recognition in its field. Keeping some of the spirit of youth and venturesome-

ness is necessary to insure that sound development will take place when the organization has reached its maturity. If status, stability, and maturity lead to complacency, the doors are open to the germs that inevitably bring decline. Whenever individuals or organizations spend more time in nostalgic longing for what has been than they spend in contemplation of what should be, they are moving irretrievably into the battle for status quo instead of for progress.

There are hazards that serve as road blocks to growth both for individuals and for organizations. It is the function of the management team to remove or at least to minimize such obstacles by careful planning and judicious action. The desired goals are likely to be reached when the course is properly charted, the people carefully selected, responsibilities clearly defined, mutuality assiduously nurtured, communication astutely planned, finances appropriately managed, and maturation persistently sought.

Policies and Plans of College Guidance Centers Operating under VA Contracts¹

By MITCHELL DREESE

SINCE 1945, 415 Veterans Administration Guidance Centers have been operating on college and university campuses, or one for approximately every four institutions of higher learning in the United States. Between July 1, 1945, and March 1, 1949, it is estimated that more than one million advisements had been provided for veterans in these centers. In establishing guidance centers on college campuses rather than confining them to VA regional offices, the VA was influenced by the availability of physical resources and qualified testing and counseling personnel which could best be procured for veterans on a contractual basis. The VA, however, was not unmindful of the possible influence of this vast program of counseling on student personnel work in higher education. On April 18, 1945, Dr. Ira Scott, chief of vocational rehabilitation in the central office of the VA, in an address at the National Press Club, Washington, stated, "This program of VA College Guidance Centers should result in more effective future service by such institutions not only to veterans, but to other students and to other citizens who may be interested in the permanent improvement of adult counseling services in their own communities."

By December 1948 the program which had mushroomed through a four-year period had begun to decrease in size as the number of veterans needing testing and vocational counseling began to decline. Of the 415 centers which had been in operation, 105, or 25 percent, had already been deactivated, and it was anticipated that the deactivation rate would soon be accelerated. It seemed to be an appropriate time to take stock

¹ A summary of the findings of a survey of the American Council on Education, Mitchell Dreese, director; advisory committee composed of A. J. Brumbaugh, Robert H. Mathewson, Miss Phoebe L. Overstreet, and Mrs. Janet S. Kirshner.

and try to ascertain to what extent Dr. Scott's hope, expressed in his address—of stimulating colleges and universities to provide more adequate testing and vocational counseling services, not only to veterans but also to other students and to adults in the community—had been realized.

It was decided to limit the study to Plan A and Plan A-B centers which provided counseling as well as testing service and which had been in operation for a period of at least two years. This limited the number to be contacted to 243. A letter was sent to the presidents of these 243 institutions explaining the purpose of the study together with a questionnaire calling for information about present administrative policies in the center and what the institution was planning to do about the testing and vocational counseling services of the center when the VA contract was no longer in effect. From the 243 questionnaires mailed, replies were received by February 1, 1949, from 164 institutions, of which 154, or 63 percent, of the total contacted were used for purposes of tabulation. The sampling was representative of the various geographic sections of the United States and types of institutions of higher education.

Part I of the questionnaire was concerned with present practices of VA college and university guidance centers. The data revealed that the median number of cases processed per month during the total period of operation was 70 as compared with a median of 56 for the past six months. This decrease is evidence of the declining case load in the centers still operating. The largest case load was in the 5 private professional-technical schools (median, 143 per month for the total period of operation); followed by the 26 private universities (median, 115 per month for the total period of operation). The smallest case load was in the 15 public liberal arts colleges, with a median of 34 per month for the total period of operation. The 47 private institutions as a group had a case load of 114 per month for the total period of operation as compared with a median of 64 for the 103 public institutions supplying data on this question.

Let us turn our attention to the question of how many centers

made their services available to nonveteran students as well as veterans. The institutions were not compensated, of course, by the VA for nonveteran students. Sixty-six percent, or two-thirds, checked "Yes" to the question of whether they served nonveteran students. It was rather surprising to find that this policy was more prevalent among private institutions than public colleges and universities. Thirty-nine percent of the public institutions did *not* serve nonveteran students, as compared with 22 percent for private institutions.

Of the 66 percent of institutions which provided testing and counseling services to nonveteran students, slightly more than two-thirds did so without charge. In the public institutions whose VA guidance centers accepted nonveteran student clients, eight out of ten did so without charge as compared with five out of ten in the private institutions.

Of the 32 institutions that reported the amount of the fee charged nonveteran students, the median was \$20 with a Q¹ of \$8.00 and a Q³ of \$20.00. The effect of the VA rate of \$20.00 is apparent. In the thirteen public institutions reporting data on fees to nonveteran students, the median fee was only \$8.00.

Another item of popular interest is the extent to which the testing and counseling services of the center have been available to nonveteran clients from the community. The VA, of course, did not pay for this service. In general, the practice was approximately fifty-fifty, with 55 percent answering "Yes" and 45 percent "No." In the 49 private institutions, however, two out of three accepted community nonveteran clients.

What was the composition of the case load of the centers? Twenty-one of the 154 institutions were unable to answer this question because they kept no records by appropriate breakdown. The 133 reporting stated that 52 percent of their clients were veteran clients from the nearby community, 33 percent were veterans from their own institution, 12 percent nonveteran students from their own institution, and 3 percent nonveteran clients from the nearby community. Only 15 percent of the

clients were nonveterans. The distribution of clients among these four categories was essentially the same in private and public institutions. The percentage of nonveteran clients from the nearby community was slightly higher in the private institutions, 5 percent as compared with 2 percent in public colleges and universities.

The final question on Part I of the questionnaire was: "Prior to the inauguration of the VA center, was there existent on campus a centrally organized service, with a director in charge, responsible for testing and counseling students in regard to their vocational plans?" Slightly more than half of the institutions answered "No" to this question. Among the private institutions, two out of three had not had previously a centrally organized service.

And now we come to the "sixty-four dollar question": "When the VA contract is no longer in effect, what do you plan to do with the guidance center?" Only *four* of the 154 institutions reporting stated that they were planning to discontinue the center and abandon the testing and vocational counseling service. Six of the 154 colleges and universities reporting indicated that they were planning to discontinue the center and continue to offer testing and vocational counseling under a decentralized program. Fifty-seven percent went on record to the effect that they intended to continue the center essentially as at present. Twenty-five percent reported that they were planning to discontinue the VA guidance center as now organized, but would continue to offer the testing and counseling service in a newly organized, or reorganized, manner as a part of a systematic guidance program.

Apparently there was some confusion in replying to the query of whether or not they planned to discontinue the center. From the qualifying remarks it was apparent that most of the institutions that stated they planned to discontinue the center but continue to offer testing and counseling service, interpreted "discontinuing the center" to mean discontinuing the VA relationship, discontinuing the present administrative setup for the

center, or making other changes in the organization of the center.

Thirty-six institutions, or 23 percent of the total of 154 replying, stated that it is impossible to say at the present time what will be done with the center. Twelve of these also checked that they expected to continue; 5 that they would probably discontinue. Many of these 36 institutions qualified their answer to indicate that they would make every effort to continue the center in some form or other.

One hundred twenty-six, or 82 percent of the 154 institutions reporting, stated that they planned either to continue the center essentially as at present or to continue to offer the testing and counseling service in an organized manner as a part of a systematic program. Of these 126 institutions, 87, or 57 percent, stated unequivocally that they were planning to continue the center essentially as at present. Sixty-five percent of the private colleges and universities took this position, as compared with 52 percent of the public institutions. Let us examine the more detailed future plans in these 87 institutions. Four out of five stated that they would make their services available to all interested students, and, of this number, two-thirds indicated that the service would be without charge to students referred by a student personnel officer and on a fee basis to others. Eighteen percent, mostly private institutions, thought they could best handle the situation by increasing the activity fee for all students. Four institutions hoped to finance the program by philanthropic support.

Seven out of 10 institutions planning to continue the center essentially as at present, plan to make its services available to interested clients from the community, largely on a fee basis. Only 11 percent of those planning to serve the community, plan to do so without charge; all of these colleges and universities are publicly supported institutions.

It was stated previously that 36 institutions, or 23 percent of the 154 returning usable data, stated that it was impossible for them to say definitely at the present time what will be done

with the center. Let us consider some of the reasons which they gave for their indecision. Nine out of ten stated that a decision was dependent upon availability of funds. All but one of the eighteen publicly supported institutions which were undecided stated that it was a matter of budget. Apparently availability of qualified personnel is not too serious a problem, for only one-fourth of the institutions still undecided checked that availability of qualified personnel would influence their decision and these were exclusively institutions which had not had a center prior to the VA contract. Four out of ten went on record as saying that their decision would depend upon further evidence as to the demand for the service. Only one-sixth of the institutions still undecided were of the opinion that further evidence was needed as to the value of the service before they made their decision.

What are the considerations which lead the college or university administration to continue the guidance center when the VA contract is no longer in effect? One hundred eighteen colleges and universities checked the reasons which influenced them in deciding to continue the center. Slightly more than one-third stated that "Testing and vocational counseling through a guidance center were in operation here before the VA contract went into effect, and we shall be returning essentially to our former program." Thirty-eight percent of the public institutions and 30 percent of the private institutions made this statement. Two-thirds of the institutions went on record as saying that "The VA guidance center has demonstrated the value of testing and vocational counseling as an organized service which we wish to incorporate into our program of student personnel services." In an examination of these data it was observed that many institutions that did not check this reason were colleges and universities which had had a guidance center before the VA program was inaugurated and felt that they were returning essentially to it.

The following possible reason for continuing the center was included among the list of considerations which might be checked.

"Students, both veteran and nonveteran, have come to accept testing and vocational counseling as a legitimate institutional service and expect the institution to continue to provide this assistance." Fifty-eight percent of the institutions checked this reason. The replies were very consistent among the various types of private and publicly supported colleges and universities.

Approximately half of the colleges and universities planning to continue their guidance centers, specified as one of their reasons, that "The need for testing and counseling services available to nonstudent clients has been expressed by representative agencies and members of the community." Fifty-seven percent of the private institutions checked this as a reason, as compared with 43 percent of the public institutions. Eighty percent of the large private universities and 70 percent of the private liberal arts colleges gave this as a reason for continuing the center. It is rather surprising that the private institutions were more sensitive to the expressed desire of representative agencies and members of the community than were the public institutions. Only 33 percent of the small public universities gave public pressure as a reason for continuing.

One section of Part II of the questionnaire dealt with the considerations that entered into a decision to discontinue the guidance center. Only twenty-five institutions elected to answer this section. These consisted of four which were planning to abandon the service, six which were planning to decentralize the guidance program, and fifteen which were still undecided but leaning toward discontinuing the center. Of this number one-third gave as their reason, "It is primarily a program for veterans, and the need either has been or will have been met." Only *one* of the twenty-five colleges and universities stated that it was planning to discontinue the guidance center for the reason that "The value of the service for students generally has not been adequately demonstrated." Seven out of ten of the institutions reporting checked the reason for discontinuing as "The cost of maintaining the service without VA or other outside support is prohibitive." Two institutions inserted the state-

ment on the questionnaire that lack of space and facilities was the reason for planning to give up the guidance center.

In an attempt to tap general attitudes concerning the influence of the VA guidance center on the student personnel program of the institution, a series of statements was presented with the request that the pertinent statements be checked. The college and university administrators were requested to give their reactions to these statements regardless of what they planned to do in the future with their guidance center. One hundred forty-nine of the 154 colleges and universities gave their reactions to these statements.

1. Counsel of doubtful value has actually caused a considerable number of students and faculty to question seriously the worth-whileness of testing and vocational counseling.

Only one institution—a public liberal arts college checked this statement as true.

2. The influence has been negligible.

Only 5 institutions out of 149, or 3 percent, stated that the influence had been negligible.

3. The service has not been sufficiently integrated into the institutional program so that it has been adequately known and utilized by either faculty or students.

Thirty institutions, or 20 percent, voted that this statement was true. On this item the proportion of private institutions voting "Yes" was twice as great as among public institutions.

4. The service is probably worth while but cannot be maintained without outside support such as was received under the VA contract.

One out of five, or 20 percent, indicated that this was true, with the proportion from the private institutions twice as great as from the public institutions.

5. The service has been worth while for veterans, but will not be needed when student veterans are no longer present in considerable numbers.

Only 6 percent felt that the service would no longer be needed when student veterans were no longer present in considerable number. Apparently the value of a testing and vocational

counseling service for college and university students is now overwhelmingly accepted.

The survey of attitudes toward the VA college guidance center also revealed the following: The institutions responding were generally of the opinion that few new guidance techniques or procedures had been developed in connection with the guidance program and expressed an intention to simplify forms and procedures when no longer under VA contract. Among the tangible gains resulting from the VA college guidance center program, the training of qualified personnel, the availability of basic equipment and materials, and a currently expanded budget which will make it easier to maintain vocational guidance services in the future were most frequently advanced as major contributions.

Many institutions volunteered the comment that they had been sold on the value of testing and vocational counseling for college and university students, but that they planned to make many short cuts and modifications of procedure when they no longer had to follow the prescribed VA pattern. The Advice and Guidance Service of the Veterans Administration would probably readily grant that certain records and forms could well be modified or dispensed with in a college setup, in which the problem of transferring records from one region to another does not exist. On the other hand, the use of these standard forms is likely to result in more uniformity in forms in college guidance centers long after the VA college guidance program is history.

So much for the general findings—What variations in present policy and future plans exist in relation to the pre-VA status of the center? Of the 154 institutions included in the present study, 87, or 56 percent, indicated that they had *not* had a centrally organized guidance center with a director in charge prior to the inauguration of the VA contract; 67, or 44 percent, stated that they had had such a center before 1945. For purposes of discussion we shall refer to these two categories of institutions as the "had" and the "had not" groups. The replies of the

"had" and the "had not" colleges and universities were re-tallied on all the items of the questionnaires pertaining to future plans. In general, the replies of the two groups were strikingly similar with respect to the present policies and future plans which were previously summarized, with certain exceptions which will now be pointed out.

1. Ninety percent of the "had" group were planning to continue the center essentially as at present or to offer the testing and counseling services as part of a systematic guidance program, as compared with 75 percent of the "had not" group. Conversely, the proportion of colleges uncertain as to the future of the center was twice as great among the "had not" group. When it is considered that the guidance centers in the "had not" colleges had been nonexistent prior to the VA contract, it is gratifying to note that in three-fourths of such institutions the decision has already been made to continue the program. The decision to continue the center is still more prevalent, however, in the institutions which had had a counseling service prior to the VA contract.

2. With respect to the student clients to be served in the future, 23 percent of the "had not" group were planning to limit the service to students having special needs as compared with 9 percent for the "had" group. A slightly larger proportion of the "had not" group were planning to offer their services to clients from the community. An effort at economy is reflected in the first of the above comparisons; a greater hope for fees from community clients to help support the center, in the second comparison.

3. In the formulation of future plans for the support of the center, more than one-fourth of the "had not" colleges are planning to increase the activity fee, as compared with 8 percent of the "had" group. The "had not" group is also slightly more inclined to charge fees of students counseled in the center, although less than one-third are contemplating any such charge.

4. Of the four colleges and universities which stated they were planning to abandon the guidance center, three had not

had one prior to the VA contract. Five of the "had not" schools were planning to discontinue the center and offer the services under a decentralized plan as compared with one college in the "had" group. It is gratifying that these data are too small to be worthy of much consideration and that the trend is overwhelmingly toward a continuation of the present centralized and coordinated program of testing and counseling.

5. Twenty-nine percent of the "had not" group were uncertain about the future plans for the center, as compared with 16 percent for the "had" group. Surprisingly enough, approximately one-third of these "had not" institutions checked availability of qualified personnel as a factor which would influence their decision. No institution in the "had" group mentioned this factor. However, availability of funds was the main cause for indecision in both groups.

6. Among the reasons advanced for continuing the center after the VA contract expires, the demonstrated value of the service was referred to by four out of five of the "had not" institutions, while the "had" schools referred most frequently to the fact that, in continuing, they would be but returning to a program which was regarded by the students and the community as a normal institutional service.

No other significant differences existed in the future plans of the two groups of guidance centers—those which had been in existence before the VA contract and those which came into being under VA aegis. With the exception of the points just enumerated, the general findings summarized earlier apply to both groups of centers.

It is apparent that testing and vocational counseling have received real impetus from the VA college guidance center program and that with minor modifications the programs will continue when the VA contracts expire. The institutions which first organized their vocational testing and counseling service under VA contract are just as enthusiastic about the necessity of incorporating this service in the regular student personnel program as are the colleges and universities which have had such

a program before the close of the war. They recognize that they must plan carefully to maintain the service and in some institutions may have to charge student clients a fee or raise the activity fee in order to support the service. The colleges and universities are also counting on fees from clients in the community to help sustain the program. Fortunately, the majority of colleges and universities, particularly the state-supported schools have already planned to carry the testing and vocational counseling program out of their regular budget. It is conservative to say that the VA college guidance center program, with its 415 demonstration centers, in the short space of four years has advanced the cause of vocational guidance on the college and university level by more than fifteen years of normal development. Should the federal government at any time in the future initiate an extensive program of scholarships, such as are provided under the GI bill, it is almost a certainty that such a program would be implemented by a testing and counseling service. Amazing progress has been made in testing and vocational counseling on the college and university level during the past four years and the future looks good.

Preparation of Teachers of Consumer Education

By HENRY HARAP and RAY G. PRICE

CONSUMER education is a phase of the larger movement of educating for living that has been making headway steadily during the last three decades. The Educational Policies Commission has issued a volume on the *Purposes of Education in American Democracy*¹ which includes intelligent consumership among the major objectives of public education. In a more recent volume the commission lists the ability to purchase and use goods and services as one of the ten imperative needs of youth.

In 1946-47 Thomas H. Briggs studied the status of consumer education in high schools that enrolled more than three hundred pupils. Of the 725 schools that returned the inquiry blank, 26 percent offered a separate course in consumer education. Eighty-seven percent of the schools indicated that they offered instruction in the buying of goods and services as a part of other courses. A study of 205 high schools in the North Central Association, which was completed in the summer of 1948, shows that 19 percent of the cooperating schools reported the inclusion of separate courses in consumer education. Ninety-four percent of the senior high schools taught consumer education in some manner.

SURVEY OF TRAINING OF TEACHERS OF CONSUMER EDUCATION

In the light of the school offerings and the needs of life, we were curious to know what teacher-educating institutions were doing to prepare teachers of consumer education. Replies were received from 166 institutions engaged in the education of teachers. Of this number 55 were universities and the rest were largely teachers colleges.

One-third of the institutions reported that they give special attention to the preparation of teachers of consumer education.

¹ Washington: National Education Association, 1938.

On the whole, few colleges and universities have formulated programs of specialization in consumer education. This responsibility is usually assumed in an informal way by the departments of home economics and business education. The present situation reflects a very limited demand for teachers specially trained in the economics of consumption. We are probably training as many teachers in this field as can be absorbed at the present time.

Only the frontier institutions and leaders may be expected to pioneer in this relatively new field. But, in view of the generally accepted need of education for the improvement of living, the potential demand for qualified teachers of consumer education should grow in the years ahead. Regardless of the present demand for teachers, a good course in consumer problems without too much pedagogy would be very useful to the student as a citizen.

Our inquiry had the effect of stimulating an expression of interest in the need for consumer education. It is interesting to note that of the 112 institutions that reported a neglect of consumer education, 83 indicated that training should be provided for teachers in this field. The respondents had varying opinions as to how the training should be provided. Twenty-two favored a separate course; 40 preferred integration with existing courses; and 19 felt that both separate courses and integration were desirable. This response reveals a certain amount of readiness of college authorities to introduce a program of consumer education if they were stimulated to do so.

Some Colleges Offer Consumer Content Courses

The consumer content courses are offered largely by those institutions that indicated that they gave special attention to the training of teachers of consumer education. However, about one-sixth of the other colleges also offer consumer content courses.

The most common content course offered is the Economics of Consumption, which was listed 24 times. This is followed by Consumer Education, with a frequency of 19, and Consumer Problems, with a frequency of 16. As judged by the course

listings, the universities offer content courses somewhat more frequently than do the teachers colleges. In 86 percent of the cases the institutions offered only one content course, for which three semester hours of credit were usually given.

The chances are that Economics of Consumption is a basic course, which in some cases is required. The courses in Consumer Education and Consumer Problems are probably advanced elective courses, most frequently required by the departments of home economics and business education. If the student has had a course in the Economics of Consumption in the lower division, the advanced course involves some duplication, but serves as a useful review for the future teacher of consumer education.

Consumption an Integral Part of Regular Courses

The colleges were asked to indicate whether the study of consumption was an integral part of regular course offerings. As may be expected, about 75 percent of the institutions replied in the affirmative. Mention was made of forty-eight different courses that include aspects of consumption. This was not very illuminating, because the responses did not differentiate between the intensive treatment in a course in food and the incidental reference in a course in sociology.

Home economics courses were listed 79 times, the most common titles being food, clothing, and home management. Business education ranked second, with a frequency of 35, the most common courses being marketing, insurance, and salesmanship. The social sciences ranked third with a frequency of 33, the most common course being economics. Several references were made to the inclusion of units on consumer buying in student teaching. Four institutions reported that consumer education was included in professional courses for teachers.

Our data suggest that the incidental treatment of consumption is an uncertain and inadequate preparation for this work in the public schools. To get any assurance of adequacy of preparation, it would be necessary to find out what is taught in the various departments and to compare it with an acceptable outline of consumer competency.

Professional Course in Consumer Education

Of the 166 institutions which responded, only 13 indicated that they offer a professional course for the preparation of teachers of consumer education. In several instances the reply indicated that these courses are taught on the graduate level. It is possible, however, that some of the courses classified as content courses, particularly those that bear the title Consumer Education, were essentially courses for teachers. Here the only inference we can draw is that the offerings in consumer education are not commonly classified as courses which deal primarily with teaching procedure in this field.

Department Which Has Major Responsibility

The nature of courses listed and the department to which our inquiry was referred gave us an indication of where the major interest in consumption lay. It is our estimate that at the present time the departments of home economics and business education assume the primary responsibility for the education of consumers in 70 percent of the institutions. The home economics department predominates in the teachers college, and the department of business education is foremost in the university. In 30 percent of the institutions the responsibility for consumer education is divided among several departments, the most common of these being social science. It appears, therefore, that a balanced sequence of courses for teachers of consumption does not now exist anywhere.

PROPOSED PROGRAM OF PREPARATION OF TEACHERS
OF CONSUMER EDUCATION

For convenience, our proposed program of preparation of teachers of consumer problems will be outlined in terms of the four major phases of the total curriculum of teacher education: (1) *general education*, which includes those courses which contribute to the personal development of the teacher; (2) *professional education*, which includes those courses which deal more directly with teaching (education courses); (3) *field of speciali-*

zation, which includes the subject matter in the future teacher's major field of specialization; (4) *electives*, which include those courses chosen by the student without restriction from all the catalog offerings.

Any proposal made by course titles is obliged to be indefinite, because it is difficult to predict the specific contents of a course from its title. Yet it is a practical procedure because the college requirements are expressed in course titles.

The general education phase of the total curriculum includes several broad courses in such fields as communication, social science, physical science, biological science, and humanities. As a rule courses in general mathematics and physical education are also included. Of these, the social studies and the sciences make a more direct contribution to the field of consumption.

The study of economic, social, and political problems should introduce the student to the place of the consumer in modern society, the relation of the consumer to government, the distribution of income, the regulation of rates and prices, business organization, the standard of living, the marketing system, consumer cooperatives, and similar fundamental topics.

The study of science should give the student a better understanding of the hundreds of appliances which discovery and invention have added to man's comfort and convenience. The consumption habits of the people are changing as technology is applied to food processing, the development of synthetic fibers, the production of plastics, and the discovery of new drugs. Laboratory tests for the purity and durability of goods and their interpretation have a scientific basis.

The professional courses in teaching are usually determined by the department of education and are largely influenced by the certification requirements of the states served by the college.

These courses invariably include directed teaching, which should be an important part of the training of teachers of consumption. If a class in consumption economics is not available, the student should have an opportunity to assist in the teaching of a unit in this field. The student-teacher should have plenty of time and resources for the planning of the unit to be taught.

Much useful experience can be gained by sharing in the economic enterprises of the college campus. Apprenticeship in the purchase of food, the operation of the dining hall, the purchase of equipment, the operation of a bookstore, and other activities involves problems in the selection, purchase, and use of goods and services which are of great value to the teacher of consumer problems.

At the present time very few students major in consumer education on the undergraduate level. If the need for specialization should arise in any institution, the organization of a program for the preparation of teachers of consumption should be developed cooperatively by an interdepartmental committee.

For the present, the student will select one of the current fields of specialization related to consumption, the most common of which are home economics, business education, and social science. Each of these departments has its specific requirements. Each has courses which include consumption, but they differ widely in kind and emphasis. Recent publications in the fields of science and mathematics indicate that students may be increasingly interested in the consumer aspects of these subjects.

It is premature to suggest that all departments should agree upon common requirements for specialization in consumer education. However, it is not unreasonable to expect them to agree on a single basic course in consumer problems. The fundamental course would undoubtedly be prescribed by the department of home economics and, perhaps, business education; it would be elective in such fields as science and mathematics. With the possible exception of a basic course in consumption, the student would receive instruction in his field of specialization as prescribed by the department.

As a student continued to have a special interest in the field of consumer education, he might have an opportunity to elect a variety of courses that have a direct bearing on this field. The student should seek the help of his adviser in discovering the gaps in his own preparation. If the basic courses in social science are weak in sociology, economics, or government, he should be advised to take an advanced course in one or more of these fields.

If his introductory courses in science are largely theoretical, he should be advised to take work in the applications of science to daily living. A selection from such offerings as food, clothing, family finance, marketing, and merchandising might be made to round out the student's special training in consumer education.

SUMMARY

We have seen that consumer education is part of a growing movement, the purpose of which is to improve the quality of living. The teacher-educating institutions have barely begun to prepare teachers who are competent to guide the young in the intelligent choice and use of goods and services. Nearly 15 per cent of the institutions participating in our survey offer a course in the Economics of Consumption. At the present time most colleges proceed on the assumption that consumer competency is a by-product of the regular course offerings. A balanced sequence of courses for teachers of consumption does not exist.

A program of preparation of teachers of consumer problems is proposed. In the general education of the student the social studies and sciences should introduce the student to the field of consumption. A sequence of courses should be developed co-operatively by an interdepartmental committee for those students who may wish to specialize in consumer education. The departments which have an interest in the field should at least agree on a single basic course in Consumer Problems which should be required of prospective teachers of home economics and business education. It should be elective in the fields of science and mathematics.

Consumer education is rapidly gaining support in theory and practice in both the elementary and secondary schools. Our survey clearly indicates that greater emphasis is needed at the teacher-training level if consumer education is to achieve the place it deserves in the curriculum.

Symbol or Substance in Education?

By ROY IVAN JOHNSON

"Is the college at present too much concerned with the manipulation of symbols and too little concerned with the experience in activity which these symbols imply?"—*Harold B. Dunkel*¹

THE PURPOSE OF A SYMBOL is to express, or suggest, meaning. Its danger lies in the tendency of the human mind to revere the symbol without understanding or valuing the ideas or ideals which it represents. Even words themselves, which are supposedly living symbols of thought, often become "show case" words with which to dazzle the public mind or stir public emotion. What is a "patriot"? What is "democracy"? What is "liberty"? What do we mean by "our way of life"? These words, and hundreds of other like them, take on an emotional aura of their own. They can wake responses, even violent responses, in minds completely innocent of their significance and meaning. The word takes on power, while its meaning grows impoverished.

As a result, many a "patriot," who would die for "the flag," joins the ranks of public enemies at home in the obstruction of law and order. And many a hardened sinner who breaks all the commandments without a qualm gets weekly solace from mumbling the liturgy of his "religion." In education we put our trust in grades, in credits recorded by a registrar, in transcripts, in diplomas, in degrees. These symbols represent the common currency of exchange in education, and we attach value to them with little, if any, critical examination of educational results.

Symbolism in education multiplies with its machinery of organization and the complexity of its processes. New administrative units, new departments, new courses, may develop from

¹ From Dunkel, *General Education in the Humanities* (Washington: American Council on Education, 1947).

a genuine sense of need. Junior colleges may be set up, citizenship courses may be developed, advisement programs may be launched—all with a view to serving well-defined functional purposes. Presently the new college, the new course, or the new program is accepted as visible proof that the purposes are being served. We have yet to learn, apparently, that institutional formality is no guarantee of institutional performance.

Let us look at some of the educational practices that outwardly conform to the trends in educational theory but which, in effect, are a bit of window dressing to attract the consumer or to placate the more progressive-minded members of the faculty. First, let us see what happens, in many cases, to new courses which have been introduced in response to pressure (either from outside or inside) for a more "functional" type of instruction. Perhaps it is a course in the responsibilities of family living, announced as "Sociology 122b, a course in the history of the family and its function in modern society." The public relations department advertises the course as a course in the preparation of young people for marriage. The alumni feel a surge of pride as they read the announcement. Alma Mater is stepping out on the front lines in meeting educational problems!

Now follow the course for a year or two in operation. Professor X, who is assigned to teach the course, is steeped in the sociological traditions of the department. He must teach what he knows—and what he knows is sociology. He makes a bold effort, however, to branch out. He finds a textbook in *Problems of Marriage and Family Living* and assigns it as supplementary reading. He invites a consultant on family relations to give a guest lecture on domestic problems. He even writes to the department of education for materials which will help him in teaching the course. Then comes the first blow. Indianola University writes that it will not give credit for Sociology 122b, since it does not correspond in content with any sociology course (or other course) offered at Indianola. Also, some of Professor X's colleagues begin to taunt him about giving a snap

course. No meat in it, they say. No invitation to scholarship. Not a solid, college-level course. Under these pressures, the course gradually takes on a duller academic coloring. More emphasis is given to the history and development of the family from primitive times until the present, and less emphasis is given to the problems and conditions that affect the stability of the modern family. Thus the course reverts to the familiar pattern, with its substance borrowed from the past rather than the present.

Or take the course in Basic Principles of Citizenship, or Democracy in Action, or Problems in Modern Society. The course emerged originally as an effort on the part of the school to meet the persistent demand that education *do something constructive* about the problem of preparing young people for responsible citizenship, for intelligent social action. Enthusiasm mounts; staff meetings are held to set up objectives and content for the course; and a new syllabus is projected. But by the time the economist has had his say, along with the historian, the sociologist, and the political scientist, the "new" course is neatly equipped with pigeonholes packed with subject matter from the standard textbooks in the respective fields, with no possibility of successful integration. As the years go by and new teachers come in, the course continues as a kind of polyglot offering of four courses in one, varying with the complexion of teacher interest.

Student "advising" is another area in which organizational form is often more conspicuous than educational function. If regular staff members are assigned to counseling duties, their interest in the subject matter of their courses and the lack of time for individual follow-up conferences make the advising activities, in far too many instances, a purely perfunctory performance, restricted largely to signing up for courses, approving changes in schedule, and checking on requirements for graduation. In some institutions academic advising is supplemented by specialized counseling in vocational guidance or in connection with dormitory residence problems. But if the doctrine

of individual needs is to be seriously accepted, the counseling program must be broader than the student's academic experience, broader than vocational guidance, broader than the disciplinary problems of the dormitory or the campus. It must be an individualized program, geared into all aspects of student experience and serving all recognizable needs for personal growth and development. The problems will range all the way from study problems to time-budgeting, from health practices to personal hobbies, from vocational interests to problems of social adjustment.

Counseling needs cannot be cared for by the simple expedient of opening a counseling office and collecting a mass of data from batteries of psychological tests. Neither is a psychological "clinic" the answer to the problem. True, the more severe problem cases will normally come to light and will be given some kind of attention. But the benefits of counseling should reach far beyond the problem cases. The potentialities of *all* students are the concern of education.

If this picture of discrepancy between the best that we think and the best that we do is a true picture, what is the explanation? There are so many contributing factors, it would be hard to assess their respective weight and importance. It may be that, as a people, we prefer to bolster our idealism with platitudes rather than support it with practice. Certainly the gap that exists between our verbal worship of the principles of democracy and our conspicuous political abuse of them in dealing with our domestic problems offers a case in point. Likewise, the pious believer, who is by no means a pious doer in the private affairs of his own life, is a perennial problem in every parish. But the fact that it is human nature to live less nobly than we think is not a particularly soul-satisfying reflection. It explains, but it does not exonerate.

The problem of the educator, however, goes deeper than a simple acknowledgment of the weakness of human nature. He must find the answer in some kind of constructive action that will shape human nature into a sterner pattern. The key to

the problem lies in personnel. The men and women who administer and the men and women who teach must have clear understandings and deep moral convictions. They must have a professional spirit that values results above routine, substance above form. If we take the long view, we must look toward our teacher-training institutions to supply better teachers for better schools. If we expect more immediate results, we must resort to a vigorous program of in-service training. We must be closer students of our job. We must re-examine our procedures and re-evaluate our results.

On the whole, there are heartening evidences of healthful growth and change. Not all so-called "progressive movements" in education are suffering from relapse or inertia, and not all new courses are false fronts behind which the traditional types of teaching and learning are still carried on. There is a genuine revival of interest in education, together with an intelligent concern about the kind and quality of teaching which is being done. Our faith in education is greater than ever, but it is accompanied by a more searching appraisal of *what is being done* for the students. This fact does not alter the need for constant discrimination between outward form and inward fulfillment. To burnish the outside of the cup does not insure a richer draught of learning. When symbol is exalted at the expense of substance, a little gadfly treatment is in order.

Portrait of a Thinker¹

By FREDERICK S. BREED

JORGE AGUSTIN NICOLAS DE SANTAYANA, thinker and stylist extraordinary, darling of the literary intelligentsia. Distinctly I recall my first impressions of the man. He presented himself on the platform of a commodious classroom at Harvard, unaware of my humble presence, for I was merely a groping student who had wandered in to catch a glimmer of his philosophic wisdom. There was an examination in the offing and Santayana was to give it.

I cannot say that I was the only listener of whom he was unaware. A Harvard undergraduate attending one of Santayana's classes is reported to have turned to a classmate and inquired, "Do you suppose he knows we are here?" It is not difficult to understand this youthful query. The eyes of the lecturer glistened with a peculiar abstraction, as if playing with his favorite "essences," quite divorced from the relatively inconsequential objects that immediately surrounded him. Though he liked young people, he always hated to be a professor. His soul was in his subject, but not in his lecturing. He went into professoring exactly as a friend of his went into business—"expressly to make money quickly and to escape."

"I have always been attentive to clothes," Santayana remarks in a recent book, and there was no sign of a slump into sartorial negligence when he appeared before his classes in those middle years. In style his garb was modern and correct, but never extreme. Surmounting a well-pressed suit and immaculate linen was an unforgettable head. What with a dome then quite devoid

¹This article draws its principal data from the following writings of George Santayana: (a) "A General Confession," *The Philosophy of George Santayana* ("The Library of Living Philosophers" [Evanston and Chicago: Northwestern University, 1940]), II, 3-30; (b) *Persons and Places*: I, *The Background of My Life*; II, *The Middle Span* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1944-45). The quoted passages relating to Santayana are taken from *Persons and Places*, with the permission of the publisher.

of thatch, and pale, well-rounded cheeks, he remains in my memory, sleek, articulate, like a well-groomed Buddha seated in the presence of his worshipers.

Personal refinement has been as much a part of Santayana as his literary style. The English gentleman had captured his admiration. He lived the genteel tradition, which he dearly loved. In him it was almost too genteel. It had the delicacy, almost the fastidiousness, of the feminine touch. "I played the leading lady in the Institute Theatricals [Harvard] of 1884," he says, where he might have won the distinction of a star: the modesty of his autobiographical report makes it impossible to say. Yet he never allowed the charm of women—and he thought some of them were charming—to transport him beyond the stage of amusement, for he has eschewed matrimony all the way across the years. When designing dowagers, billowy and bold, plotted to rescue him from his lonely celibacy, he ignored their lifelines and continued to paddle about "in the quiet backwaters" alone. Now, after an escape that has endured over four-score years, he confesses: "to choose a wife was the last thing that I was thinking of; . . . I wished to be free." "I have never been adventurous," he elsewhere remarks, and every benedict will know precisely what he means.

His escape mechanism responded not only to women, but to most of the world at large. "Nature had framed me for a recluse," he asserts, and a frame-up of nature meant something vastly more severe to Santayana than it ever did to a philosopher like John Dewey. He was particularly uneasy in our American world, that world so ready to ring out the old and ring in the new. Though his father and mother had been liberal in their general social attitude, their son found little in liberalism to extol. On the whole, he hated it. That's why he could say with relish, "I love Tory England and honor conservative Spain." Moral degeneracy, political decadence, educational decline in a society aroused in him no violent protest, no spirit of reform. By the same token, his conservatism spread easily and naturally to the domain of religion. He preferred to resign his native Spain to the ministrations of the Roman Catholic Church, though

skepticism no longer permitted him to accept its supernaturalism, the essence of its life. The God of the church had faded from his picture of the universe, and the miracles on which it leaned were ascribed to superstition and credulity. But in this "nasty world" man naturally yearns for happier days somewhere, sometime, and the forms of the Catholic Church, he thought, provided better channels for human aspiration than those of any other. Certainly the ritual of Protestant worship was not for a moment regarded as a superior substitute.

It was his notion, so much at variance with that which marks the dominant thought in American democracy today, that "Fixity of tradition, of custom, of language is perhaps a prerequisite to complete harmony in life and mind." The present unrest of the masses, the vast tide of revolution now pressing with tremendous power for a higher level of political and economic justice for all mankind seems to leave him cold. Santayana's lack of social-mindedness, remarked by his fondest critics, is neither the result of an oversight nor of a blind spot on his mental retina. It is a natural consequence of his temperament and philosophy. And although it is the fashion among philosophers to claim their lives are firmly rooted in their philosophy, and their philosophy in a compulsive logic, temperament has been not only first in time with them, but probably also first as the unwritten premise of their point of view.

By nature Santayana has been an unobtrusive but deeply purposeful soul. When he says, "though I became a professor myself, I never had a real friend who was a professor," one can hardly indict the whole Harvard faculty to explain this friendlessness. Harvard reserve is famous, not infamous. One must look to the sensitivity and reserve of the man, whose friends were more than his acquaintances. In all his years of service on the Harvard staff he spoke in faculty meetings but once, and then upon request. He stood apart by choice: "I was, and I liked to remain, an unrecognized wanderer." It is quite certain that solitude seldom hung heavy on his hands.

His consuming passion, even in youth, was for self-clarification, so he early turned to philosophy as naturally as a growing

plant looks upward toward the sun. There was his light, and there his sustenance. Still, it is not reported that he ever quite achieved the art of philosophizing on an empty stomach. And his affluence was never in keeping with the altitude of his ambition. Money, therefore, became a vexatious problem for the young philosopher—money, the product of commercial activities that he cordially despised. He doesn't seem, however, to have joined the hue and cry against tainted money, which flared up briefly in his lifetime—as if a stream of dollars cannot rise above its source. He accepted commercially derived shekels from his mother's thinning purse, from university fellowship funds, and even support from friends that drew their wherewithal from the gorgeous bank account of John D. Rockefeller himself.

It is difficult to trace this strain in Santayana's character without the fear of perpetrating an injustice. A rigid individualism seemed always to define the trend of his career. Ironically, he practiced the social philosophy of American capitalism, but devoted it to different ends. To an unsympathetic critic he may appear as something of a sponge that absorbed the financial rewards of others' labors to enhance himself. Did he gather moral support from the Jesuitic doctrine that the end justifies the means? He doesn't say, so far as I recall. But means aside, the end is clear: he has become a literary ornament of our civilization as poet and novelist, and a mocking but amiable critic of the "absurd world" that brought him forth.

Most Americans, even after the unspeakable horrors of war, will find it difficult to understand how a human, unbereft of sanity, can look upon the world as Santayana does. A feeling of futility and despair has always colored the thought of certain intellectuals, but not of a majority in the U.S.A. Here hope springs eternal, even with an atomic bomb dangling above our heads. The gulf between Santayana and Americanism is that between a pessimistic materialism and an optimistic moralism. Fairly early in his student years Santayana weighed the pessimistic *Weltanschauung* of Schopenhauer and found it to his liking. How many intellectual and political leaders (and I mean to differentiate), how many of such leaders in America

today think of life as "something confused, hideous, and useless," as something not worth living? The whole real world, says Santayana, is ashes in the mouth. The language here is not to be interpreted as an example of literary shock technique, the use of exaggeration to dent the reader's mind or jolt him out of his complacency. Above all else, the work of Santayana seems suffused with sincerity of thought and expression. In him brilliance is linked with intellectual integrity—the most precious combination of talents, when joined with charity, in this bewildered world. Nor does he compensate for earthly ills by promising more heavenly days ahead. He relies on neither God nor man to brighten up the future importantly. Life is so merciless that death is merciful: "Think what an incubus life would be, if death were not destined to cancel it."

If one regards life as not worth living, why not accept a merciful exit? No pious hopes, no moralistic motives supervene to delay this solution of the problem for our subject. What, then, does? The instinct of self-preservation, always strong in the egoist? But instinct isn't reason, and a philosopher must be credited with a modicum of reason, or he is as nothing. The answer seems to be that the life of which he speaks is the life from which he has consistently withdrawn. He has chosen to be a critic in the pit rather than a Thespian on the stage. He is the attentive spectator at the unfoldment of a stupendous tragedy. He enjoys his role as a cynical reporter of the spectacle. His pleasure, he tells us, is rather in expression, in reflection, in irony. Moreover, like comedy relief in a tragedy, there are scattered oases that bring moments of harmony in the vast forbidding desert we call life, and harmony is the principle of happiness. But harmony is fundamentally an aesthetic principle, and moments of aesthetic rapture are more precious to Santayana than all the world besides. Here seems to be the key that unlocks whatever hidden chambers of happiness the world contains for him. In the rhythmic flow of poetic lines, in the charm of poetic prose, in the grace of artistry wherever found, he revels and delights. Like most pessimists, he probably finds the rewards of life pleasantly exceeding his expectations. He

is a disillusioned gentleman, yes, but he has chosen disillusion and is not afraid of it. As the artist-philosopher, he in no wise leads a baleful existence. This judgment seems to be confirmed by his statement that the decorative and poetic aspects of art and nature have always fascinated him and held his attention above everything else.

There has been no attempt in this article to sound the depths of Santayana's philosophy, to bare the intellectual foundation upon which he builds. Our purpose has been merely to picture him as in a photograph, to sketch a portrait in the rough. But still the ancient saying holds: As a man thinketh, so is he. What are the basic assumptions and generalizations determining the attitudes he takes, the reactions which he makes? What are the roots, of which one sees the fruits? That is another story, the story of his critical realism, which should be left to professional metaphysicians for dissection and analysis. There are certain features of this philosophy, however, that are obviously related to the behavior of our subject, in particular its general materialistic framework.

The materialism of Santayana is avowed and defended again and again in his books, and is of the highest significance in any attempt to explain him. He confesses himself to be "a materialist, cynic, and Tory in philosophy." For him the world is a dualism, as philosophers say, of matter and mind. Matter is that which physicists describe, and he is content to accept their formulas. If the older conception of matter as lumps of substance tiny as electrons, enormous as the stars—if this conception is allowed to lapse in favor of Einstein's notion that all is energy in the physical world—Santayana's materialistic faith continues undisturbed, for a change from matter to energy he accepts in his stride as only a change in scientific symbolism. Out beyond the range of one's consciousness, void of sensitivity as the clod, dwells the vastness and the power of the universe. The human body is part and parcel of this material context, has ways of acting in keeping with the rest of it, moves in a process of push and pull like any other physical object or concentration of energy. Santayana might well say, with his greatest teacher, that selectivity

is the pre-eminent function of mentality, but to Santayana the power of selection, even the force of the will of man, is physical and issues from the common pool, not from the consciousness of man. Consciousness comes in moments of illumination which reflect in part the nature of their causes, but consciousness itself is not a cause. It is as inert as the shadow that accompanies one on a stroll in the summer sun.

From this brief glimpse of Santayana's scheme of things one can see what happens to the personal God of traditional theology. In this system He has nowhere to lay His head. The system gets on *sans* God, and so *sans* prayer as appeal to Him, *sans* miracles as expressions of His divinity.

Too, the resignation of Santayana, his acceptance of the universe, his distaste for the moralism that pervaded the Harvard philosophical faculty in his student days—each of these attitudes is a logical consequence of his materialism. He "never dreamt of rebelling against the despotism of nature." He stands on the bank of the stream of events watching the rubbish and the wreckage pass. "I have never been aware," he asserts, "of swimming against any stream."

William James, in contrast, gloried in resisting currents that ran counter to his taste. Dewey, in the same tradition, glories likewise still. Resignation and irony are not enough for them. They stand for resistance and reform. And they do so in consonance with a pragmatic philosophy that affirms much that Santayana's materialism denies. They offer greater hope for a more abundant life. One may mock, in Santayana's vein, at this melioristic note; one may satirize it as the voice of adolescence; one may, like Bertrand Russell, sneer at it as "transatlantic truth"; but there it is as a mode of thought, built upon assumptions about the basic structure of the world that remain as challenging as the "animal faith" of Santayana. In the last analysis, a philosophy of life is founded on presuppositions that by definition are not yet susceptible of proof. The vigorous note of creativity in the pragmatic outlook may be as vulnerable as the compulsive note in the critical realism of Santayana, but that is neither here nor there as we approach the close of this discussion. Our inter-

est centers rather in the fact that pragmatism is an example of an alternative that is offered, and it is not the only rational alternative, to the design for living found in Santayana. Contrary to a common impression, one may in fact be realistic in one's outlook without aligning oneself with materialism, for witness the philosophy of Alfred North Whitehead, which, while realistic, is neither materialistic nor godless.

Santayana has sketched the structure of his philosophy, and in his recent autobiographic volumes has drawn a likeness of the man who lives it. Whether this likeness is regarded as a horrible example or a distinguished pattern for intellectuals in the years to come, his fame seems tolerably secure. In all his theorizing he has a subtle flair for practicality: a good cocktail, he might have said, should be palatable as well as potent. The harshness of his rum is softened with a dash of grenadine. Though his philosophy falter, his style will keep his books alive.

When, with a suppressed thrill of anticipation, I entered, in the long ago, a class of William James, I carried with me Herbert Spencer's dictum that culture is the efflorescence of a civilization. I thought of fragrant roses nodding on their stems, not of savory ears of corn bulging in their husks. Then one day came a burst of illumination, too long delayed, when James flicked a satirical dart at "the literary awarders of fame." The guild of the facile phrase has never since seemed quite the same. Poets and novelists now appear to exceed their quota in the halls of fame by virtue of the adoring press-agentry of brothers in their craft, while the votaries of science and technology, whose discoveries refashion and retool our daily lives, sink into comparative neglect for want of an appreciative and understanding pen.

Santayana² will never suffer from the limitations of litterateurs whose gods are graven in the likeness of themselves. The superb quality of his writing will work its charm, even if his philosophy is seen as through a glass darkly, or blurred in brains that catch but intimations of its meaning.

² Santayana, in his eighty-sixth year, now makes his home in Rome, Italy.

All Is Not Lost in China

By THEODORE HSI-EN CHEN

THE VICTORY of the Communists in China has caused some people to come to the discouraging conclusion that the establishment of a Communist regime in China will mean an end of American interests. A recent writer on the Chinese situation remarked rather sadly that, after having made big investments in missionary and educational work in China and having enjoyed for many years a pre-eminent position as a special friend of the Chinese people, the United States today is forced to withdraw from the scene and "now all is gone and the slate is wiped clean."

A closer look at the Chinese situation will show that the slate is far from clean. The Communists are not achieving a smashing military victory by the forceful elimination of all opposition forces; they are taking over the control of China because the anti-Communist forces have not been able to put up any resistance at all and the major cities of China are falling into Communist hands by the default of the government forces rather than by the military conquest of the Communist Army. Moreover, the Communists are winning not so much because the people have accepted Communism, but because they are deserting a government which no longer satisfies their hopes and aspirations.

The major cities of China have fallen into Communist hands without much fighting. This means that there still remain in different parts of the country units of military forces which have not been conquered in a military way and which will remain quiescent while waiting to see what the future will bring. Some of these forces may pledge temporary allegiance to the Communist forces as a matter of expedience, but they will remain as festering sores in the new regime for some time to come.

The slate is not clean for the further reason that the Communists do not have sufficient personnel of their own to take over government offices of various levels and managerial positions in the cities. They lack the experience of city administration and

find it necessary to retain, for a while at least, a large portion of the government personnel of the middle and lower ranks. So great is their need for trained personnel that they included among the twenty-four demands they presented to the Nationalist government early in April 1949 two items specifying that the Nationalist government should aid in urging public servants to remain at their offices and to continue their services under the new regime. It is true that the Communists are losing no time in training their own men for the key positions of the government on different levels, but it will be some time before they will be able to dispense with the services of public servants who have had many years of experience under the Nationalist regime. Thus, while the top-rank policy-makers will be Communists, there will not be such drastic changes in the personnel of the middle and lower levels. In other words a good deal of the past will still remain on the scene.

In regard to relations with the United States, it is true that the Chinese Communists have declared on repeated occasions and in no uncertain terms that they stand on the side of Soviet Russia in international politics and, therefore, the dominance of the Communists in China will mean an increase of Russian influence and a corresponding decline in American influence and prestige. It is also true that there has been a growing anti-American sentiment in different parts of China and that the reservoir of good will which the late Wendell Willkie found in his trip to China a few years ago is at a low ebb at this time. Politically, the United States government has decided for the moment to adopt a hands-off policy and that means that this country is for the moment standing aside as an on-looker who does not exercise any direct influence on the current developments.

Nevertheless, all is not lost. The United States may well take pride in the part it has played in the past to build up a new China and to change the thought patterns and attitudes of the people, particularly the student class. Through the schools and other forms of constructive enterprise the American people have made lasting contributions to China and helped in a very real way to bring about the successive revolutions of the past decades, social

as well as political. Much of this new China which the United States has helped bring about through education and through the impact of democratic ideas represents a permanent change which will not be obliterated by shifting political tides.

As for American-Chinese friendship, in spite of the poisonous effects of clever propaganda and the unmistakable growth of anti-American sentiment among certain sections of the Chinese population, there still remains in China a good deal of fundamental good will toward the United States which represents the cumulative effect of past friendly relations and which seems to be overshadowed at this time by the loud vociferations of propagandists and other manipulators of public opinion. There is, of course, no assurance that this remaining good will of the people will grow or will reassert itself after a temporary eclipse. Whether what still remains will entirely disappear or will become a basis on which to build future friendly relations will depend in a large measure on what the people of this nation do to cultivate the good will that is left and to justify the faith of millions of common people in China who still believe in their hearts that the United States is a friendly nation and that the American people are in fundamental sympathy with the best hopes and aspirations of the Chinese people.

Political relations between the United States and China are not easy at this moment. For a while there will probably be a sort of political vacuum existing between the two countries in contrast to the very close political relations of the past few decades. In view of the desire of the Communists to inaugurate economic and material reconstruction for the country and their need of supplies and equipment from the United States, it is reasonable to anticipate a fair amount of trade relations. However, there is no assurance that these trade relations will be marked by mutual good will and will lead to closer friendship and political relations. The best hope for cultivating Chinese good will and preserving Chinese friendship will be found in the field of nonpolitical relations, and it is my belief that the cultural contacts during this and ensuing periods will prove to be more important and more crucial than political or trade contacts.

At a time when the political tie between the two countries is weaker than it has been for a long time, it is particularly important that the cultural ties must not be allowed to weaken. On the contrary, in order to build for the future and to retain the friendship that has not yet been lost, the cultural contacts should be greatly increased and every means must be explored to assure the Chinese people that the people of the United States have not lost interest in the people of China and still stand ready to render friendly assistance in every way to promote the general welfare of the Chinese nation.

There need be no retrenchment in American humanitarianism on account of the shift in the political scene. Millions of people in China are in dire need of relief, and whatever is sent to the people for the relief of their suffering will be the expression of a genuine friendship which will be duly appreciated. But our problem is more than one of relief; we want to build for the future. In line with President Truman's policy of helping the backward areas of the world, we must explore ways and means of aiding in the positive reconstruction of China by projects which will bring direct and lasting benefits to the people regardless of the political regime dominant at any particular time. Furthermore, no matter what the dominating political influence is at the present moment, we must try to keep alive the cause of democracy in China by seeing to it that democratic ideas and concepts continue to find their way to the Chinese people so that their faith in the ultimate fulfillment of their democratic aspirations may be sustained and strengthened.

Since overthrowing the Manchu regime, China has been trying to establish some form of a republican government more in harmony with democratic aspirations than have been the autocratic regimes of past dynasties. In the revolution against despotism and in the successive efforts to achieve a larger measure of political democracy, China has been much influenced by American ideas. Unfortunately, the Republican regime established after the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty resulted in failure and disappointment. Stimulated by Wilsonian ideas and moved by the scope and the success of the Russian Revolution, Nationalist

China rose in the 1920's to try a different method. Under the tutelage of Russian advisers, Nationalist China instituted the system of one-party government with all the paraphernalia of a close-knit party organization, political indoctrination, and secret police to insure strict control and to prevent the rise of any other political party. It was thought possible to adopt the Soviet method without the Soviet ideology and to use the one-party government as a means of carrying out the plans and ideas of Dr. Sun Yat Sen and leading the nation eventually to a democratic form of constitutional government.

Now the Chinese nation is turning to try another new way. The new way is still to be evolved. It will doubtless be greatly influenced by the ideas and policies of Soviet Russia. It remains to be seen if, and to what extent, Communist China will prove to be a detour or a setback in China's groping after unity and stability and her struggle for freedom and democracy. At any rate it is of paramount importance that, in working out this new experiment, China should have wide contacts with differing ideas from various parts of the world and that above all she should not be isolated from the democratic nations of the world. In the days and months to come, it behooves the United States to make special efforts to keep open the channels of communication through which democratic ideas and the sustaining friendship of a democratic people may unceasingly—at times, even under serious limitations and in spite of interruptions—continue to flow into the minds and hearts of the Chinese people.

Old channels of cultural contacts must be kept open and the possibilities of new channels must be considered. The presence of missionaries as teachers, physicians, and evangelists will constitute an important link which must be sustained as long as conditions will at all permit. For years the people of this nation have generously supported schools and colleges in China, and these institutions have served as centers of new ideas and the fountainhead of democratic aspirations. Such institutions should be given even greater support than before. For those who doubt the wisdom of carrying on such programs under the Communist regime, it may not be amiss to recall the experience of 1926-29.

At that time the rise of nationalism challenged the old program of the missionary schools and colleges and many people came to the conclusion that it would be a mere waste of effort and money to try to maintain these educational institutions under the new Nationalist regime; yet, after the necessary adjustments and changes, the institutions embarked upon a period of growth and expanding influence even surpassing the record of previous years. The Communists may adopt more severe repressive measures than the Nationalist government, but as long as it is possible to keep the institutions going under private administration, they should be cherished as channels of communication, however limited the communication may be.

If it is possible to send students and scholars to China for study or research or special lectures, either under the Fulbright Act or under other auspices, such projects should be encouraged. At the same time, it is hardly necessary to point out that the presence of Chinese students in American colleges and universities constitutes an important channel through which the United States will continue to exert influence on the changing scene in China. It is necessary, however, to emphasize that the mere presence of Chinese students on American campuses does not guarantee good will or democratic influence and that the net result of this phase of cultural relations depends in a large measure on the guidance offered to the foreign students in American institutions of learning.

The writer has personally known Chinese students who came to the United States for study and returned to China bitter over their experiences. Some of them had difficulties with landlords, others had unpleasant encounters with immigration authorities, still others carried unhappy memories of part-time employment under disagreeable circumstances or unfortunate incidents involving racial prejudices and misunderstandings. In many cases, such unfortunate results could have been prevented if the students had from the beginning of their arrival in this country been given the guidance and friendly assistance they needed in their academic and social adjustments. It must be remembered that the students who succeed in their studies and who are given

the opportunity to visit American homes and make many friends among Americans are the persons who are most likely to return to their native land as ambassadors of good will and as admirers of the democratic way of life.

There is another phase of the guidance problem that is of great importance: namely, the need of guidance to enable and encourage the Chinese students in America to take time and effort to study American democracy in both its theoretical and its practical aspects. For some years it has been a tendency in China to devote more attention to technical education than to liberal education and to put a premium on scientific and technical studies at the expense of the social sciences, philosophy, and related subjects. Such a tendency is likely to become stronger in view of the obvious need of a country like China for trained persons to undertake the various tasks of material reconstruction and technological development. Therefore, many students will come from China with the definite purpose of advancing themselves in the scientific and technical fields and of learning American technology and the American know-how for direct application to Chinese problems.

This is all to the good. But it is not enough. The study or even mastery of American technology may or may not be accompanied by an appreciation of democratic ideals and an insight into the practical problems of democratic society. Without a definite provision for the study of democracy there is no guarantee at all that the foreign students will return to their native land with any understanding at all of democratic principles or any inclination to utilize their technological knowledge for democratic ends.

It is important to bear in mind that technological knowledge and know-how may be a double-edged sword. They may be a means for the enrichment of life for the common people or they may become the dangerous weapons of dictators and militarists who endanger the welfare of the people and menace the peace of the world. Hitlerism could not have become the curse that it was if it had not had at its command the science and technology that made the German universities famous. In order to make

technology a handmaid of democracy, the study of science and technology should always be closely integrated with an increasing appreciation of democratic ideals and goals. It follows, then, that foreign students on American campuses must be given special opportunity to study American life and American institutions so that they may gain increasing insight into the meaning of democracy and, through such insight, become ardent workers for the democratic cause.

The writer feels impelled to stress this point because, in recognition of the urgent needs of China and other less-developed countries for technological development, there is a tendency on the part of research foundations and government agencies in the United States to accentuate the trend of emphasizing the study of science and technology at the expense of the social sciences. Special grants are provided for foreign students in the scientific and technical fields, but extremely few scholarships or grants are available for foreign students who desire to study American education, American political institutions, or comparative social and economic philosophies. It would seem that these agencies would be quite content to have the foreign students come to the United States for their technology and turn to some other country for their ideology or social philosophy that will determine the use of the technology.

It is here urged that special effort be made to bring foreign students into intimate contact with various phases of American life so that they may develop an intelligent and critical understanding of the democratic way of life. At this time, when China is particularly susceptible to undemocratic influences, it is of crucial importance that Chinese students who desire to study the social sciences and international relations in American universities should not be placed under a handicap in comparison with the science students. At the same time, students in the scientific and technical fields must be encouraged to devote a part of their time to study American democracy in the classroom and in out-of-school contacts so that they may be consciously aware of the social philosophy that gives meaning and direction to technology. Of course, we must avoid the dangers of offensive

proselytizing or any semblance of political indoctrination. What is proposed here is the provision of more adequate opportunity for study and observation. With more adequate provision and with proper guidance, the foreign students will have a chance to discover the shortcomings as well as the merits of the American way of life and will be more likely to return to their native land with a democratic philosophy of life and a disposition to work for the cause of genuine democracy. Application of this policy to Chinese students would keep open a strategic channel through which the traditional American-Chinese friendship might be sustained and democratic ideas and concepts might continue to enter China to strengthen the democratic aspirations of the Chinese people, despite the weakening of political ties between the two countries at this particular time.

Financial Statements of the American
Council on Education

Financial Statements of the American Council on Education

THE BUDGET, 1949-50

(As approved by the Annual Meeting, May 7, 1949)

RECEIPTS

	<i>Estimated Resources July 1, 1948, to June 30, 1949</i>	<i>Actual Receipts July 1, 1948, to June 30, 1949</i>	<i>Estimated Resources July 1, 1949, to June 30, 1950</i>
Membership dues.....	\$ 95,000.00	\$ 95,220.00	\$108,000.00
Special grants.....	30,000.00	19,500.00	15,000.00
Reimbursement for services.....	20,000.00	33,315.58	20,000.00
Estimated bank balance, June 30, 1948.....	10,000.00	—	—
Actual bank balance, June 30, 1948.....	—	10,081.62	—
Estimated bank balance, June 30, 1949.....	—	—	10,000.00
Total.....	<u>\$155,000.00</u>	<u>\$158,117.20</u>	<u>\$153,000.00</u>

DISBURSEMENTS

	<i>Fiscal Year 1948-49 Proposed</i>	<i>Fiscal Year 1948-49 Expended</i>	<i>Fiscal Year 1949-50 Proposed</i>
Salary of President.....	\$ 18,000.00	\$ 18,000.00	\$ 18,000.00
Salary of Vice-President.....	11,100.00	11,006.08	11,100.00
Salaries of assistants.....	51,000.00	50,877.86	50,200.00
Rent.....	9,300.00	10,235.71	12,800.00
Travel expenses, administrative.....	5,000.00	4,748.77	5,000.00
Stationery and office supplies.....	2,500.00	1,666.28	2,500.00
Telephone and telegraph.....	2,500.00	2,492.53	2,500.00
Postage and express.....	1,000.00	1,075.65	1,000.00
Furniture and equipment.....	500.00	430.00	900.00
Committees—including Problems and Policies..	12,000.00	11,631.30	12,000.00
Auditor's fee.....	1,800.00	1,400.00	1,600.00
General expenses.....	2,400.00	2,585.30	2,400.00
Retirement annuity fund.....	13,200.00	12,713.22	14,000.00
Bulletin and printing.....	6,000.00	3,839.42	6,000.00
Building fund.....	15,000.00	15,000.00	10,000.00
Contingent.....	3,700.00	32.45	3,000.00
Total.....	<u>\$155,000.00</u>	<u>\$147,734.57</u>	<u>\$153,000.00</u>

PUBLICATIONS DIVISION

BUDGET

July 1, 1949 to June 30, 1950

	<i>Estimated Receipts</i>	<i>Estimated Disbursements</i>
<i>Restricted funds:</i>		
Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs.....	\$ 3,000.00	\$ 1,000.00
Commission on Motion Pictures.....	100.00	100.00
Commission on Teacher Education.....	15,000.00	8,000.00
Committee on Asiatic Studies.....	300.00	200.00
Committee on Social Security.....	200.00	200.00
Committee on Youth Problems.....	6,000.00	2,000.00
Conference on Preparation of Teachers for Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes.....	500.00	100.00
Cooperative Study in General Education.....	4,000.00	1,000.00
Handbooks:		
<i>American Junior Colleges</i>	6,500.00	1,000.00
<i>American Universities and Colleges</i>	16,000.00	2,000.00
<i>Unrestricted funds:</i>		
Books, <i>Educational Record</i> , Studies, etc.....	15,000.00	16,000.00
Visual materials.....	8,000.00	2,000.00
Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards.....	10,000.00	2,000.00
<i>In addition the following publication services and expenses are budgeted</i>		
Salaries.....	—	24,000.00*
Shipping, postage, supplies, etc.....	—	8,000.00*
Promotion.....	—	3,000.00*
Administrative services—accounting and banking.....	—	5,000.00*
Estimated bank balance, June 30, 1949.....	50,000.00	—
Contingent.....	—	59,000.00
Total.....	\$134,600.00	\$134,600.00

* These services and expenses are to be allocated on a cash receipts basis to the above accounts and all others serviced by the Publications Division.

F. W. LAFRENTZ & Co.

CERTIFIED PUBLIC ACCOUNTANTS

Executive Offices, New York City

Colorado Building

Washington 5, D. C.

September 12, 1949

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
Washington, D. C.

DEAR SIRs:

We have examined the accounts of the American Council on Education from July 1, 1948, to June 30, 1949, inclusive, and submit herewith our report including four exhibits and one schedule as follows:

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS:

Exhibit A—General Fund

Exhibit B—Publications Division

Exhibit C—Special Funds

Exhibit D—Building Fund

Schedule 1—Summary of Cash, Accounts Receivable, Inventories, and Commitments and/or Accounts Payable—Publications Division.

A comparison of operations with the previous period is submitted in the following statement:

GENERAL FUND, PUBLICATIONS DIVISION, AND BUILDING FUND
EXHIBITS A, B, AND D, RESPECTIVELY

	Year Ended		Increase Decreased
	June 30, 1949	June 30, 1948	
Receipts:			
Dues.....	\$ 95,220.00	\$ 84,500.00	\$ 10,720.00
General Education Board—general support.....	19,500.00	13,260.37	6,239.63
Reimbursements.....	25,000.96	30,827.55	\$,826.59 ^d
Publications Division—administrative services.....	8,314.62	11,942.43	3,627.81 ^d
	<u>\$148,035.58</u>	<u>\$140,530.35</u>	<u>\$ 7,505.23</u>
Building Fund.....	15,000.00	10,000.00	5,000.00
Publications Division.....	160,244.83	247,300.59	87,055.76 ^d
Total.....	<u>\$323,280.41</u>	<u>\$397,830.94</u>	<u>\$ 74,550.53^d</u>
Disbursements:			
Administrative.....	\$121,103.27	\$114,481.54	\$ 6,621.73
Committees of Council.....	11,631.30	11,378.62	252.68
Transfer of General Education Board Grant funds (net).....	19,500.00	13,260.37	6,239.63
Transfer to Building Fund.....	15,000.00	10,000.00	5,000.00
	<u>\$167,234.57</u>	<u>\$149,120.53</u>	<u>\$ 18,114.04</u>
Publications Division.....	139,127.07	258,798.24	119,671.17 ^d
Total.....	<u>\$306,361.64</u>	<u>\$407,918.77</u>	<u>\$101,557.13^d</u>
Excess of receipts over disbursements.....	<u>\$ 16,918.77</u>	<u>\$ 10,087.83^{Dr}</u>	<u>\$ 27,006.60</u>

Recorded cash receipts were deposited in bank, as evidenced by bank statements; and cash disbursements, as shown by the records, were supported by canceled checks and vouchers.

The cash and investments on hand at June 30, 1949, are summarized as follows:

General Fund—Exhibit A

American Security and Trust Co.:

General Fund.....	\$ 10,382.63
General Education Board Grant funds.....	500.00
	<u>\$ 10,882.63</u>

Investments

U.S. Defense bonds, Series F, due July 1954, maturity value, \$101,000.00.....	74,740.00	\$ 85,622.63
---	-----------	--------------

Publication Division—Exhibit B

American Security and Trust Co.:		
Restricted funds.....	\$78,164.74	
Unrestricted funds.....	24,056.71	
	<hr/>	102,221.45
Investments:		
Handbook, <i>American Universities and Colleges</i> , U.S. Defense Bonds, Series F, due November 1955, maturity value \$3,400.00.....	2,516.00	104,737.45
Special Funds—Exhibit C		
American Security and Trust Co.....	\$394,717.41	
Royal Bank of Canada.....	31.87	
	<hr/>	\$394,749.28
Investments:		
Cooperative Test Service, U.S. Savings bonds, Series D and F, due 1950 to 1958, maturity value \$140,000.00.....	103,700.00	498,449.28
Building Fund—Exhibit D		
American Security and Trust Co.....	\$ 15,011.79	
Investments:		
U.S. Savings Bonds, Series F, due July 1960, maturity value \$27,375.00.....	20,257.50	35,269.29
	<hr/>	<hr/>
Total.....		\$724,078.65

The cash on deposit with the American Security and Trust Company at June 30, 1949, was confirmed by the depository. The investments of the General Education Board Grant, the Building Fund, the handbook *American Universities and Colleges*, and the Cooperative Test Service were inspected by us at the Union Trust Company on August 11, 1949. During the year General Education Board Grant funds of \$19,500.00, included in Exhibit A, were appropriated to the use of the Council—this amount being under the maximum of \$45,000.00 per annum permitted for such use.

A fidelity schedule bond in force covering the following-named officers and employees was presented for our inspection:

Dr. George F. Zook, President.....	\$ 5,000.00
Dr. Aaron J. Brumbaugh, Vice-President.....	5,000.00
Mr. Frederick P. H. Siddons, Treasurer.....	15,000.00
Mrs. Grace R. Ontrich, Assistant Treasurer.....	15,000.00
Miss Helen C. Hurley, Assistant Treasurer.....	15,000.00

Policies were also inspected covering workmen's compensation and fire insurance on furniture and fixtures and stock in the amount of \$30,000.00.

Contributions to the Special Fund Grants were confirmed to us by the donors with the exception of governmental contracts and minor amounts; the contracts with the governmental departments, however, were submitted to us for inspection.

A summary of the Publications Division, as prepared by your Manager of Publications, showing cash, accounts receivable, and inventories on hand at June 30, 1949, with future commitments and/or obligations, is presented on Schedule 1. The summary indicates the following condition as of that date:

Cash.....	\$102,221.45
Accounts receivable.....	11,633.29
Inventories.....	42,961.97
	<hr/>
Total.....	\$156,816.71
Commitments and/or accounts payable.....	6,804.82
	<hr/>
Balance.....	\$150,011.89

In addition to the above, \$2,516.00 (cost) are invested in U.S. Savings Bonds, for the *American Universities and Colleges* handbook account.

Respectfully submitted,

F. W. LAURENTZ & Co.
Certified Public Accountants

EXHIBIT A

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

Washington, D. C.

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—GENERAL FUND

From July 1, 1948 to June 30, 1949

RECEIPTS

Dues:			
Associate members.....	\$ 895.00		
Constituent members.....	6,400.00		
Institutional members.....	87,925.00	\$ 95,220.00	
General Education Board—general support.....			19,500.00
Reimbursement for administration of grants:			
Advisory Committee on Educational and Cultural Relations in the			
Occupied Countries.....	\$ 961.54		
Advisory Service on Student Personnel Work.....	153.85		
Civil Aeronautics Administration Research.....	191.94		
College Admissions Study.....	1,324.33		
College Study in Intergroup Relations.....	616.23		
Commission for International Educational Reconstruction.....	1,946.22		
Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences:			
U.S. Armed Forces Institute.....	\$ 992.19		
Carnegie Corporation of New York.....	49.73	1,041.92	
Commission on Motion Pictures in Education.....	315.64		
Committee on Education and Social Security.....	427.53		
Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education.....	139.02		
Cultural Centers in Buenos Aires, Cordoba, and Rosario, Argentina.....	500.00		
Foreign Universities Project—handbook.....	1,023.64		
Inter-American Schools Service, SCC 1217.....	4,050.00		
Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools.....	1,077.08		
Naval Scientific Personnel Advisory Committee.....	452.00		
Naval Science Education—Task Order 2.....	450.00		
Naval Scientists Resources—Task Order 3.....	300.00		
Pharmaceutical Survey:			
General.....	\$ 328.34		
Implementation.....	969.28	1,297.62	
Program for adequate placement services for graduating students.....	20.37		
Revision program, Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards.....	360.43		
Selected studies for universities and colleges in Japan and Korea.....	76.83		
Study of the Navy School of Music, U.S. Naval Training Station,			
Washington, D.C.....	160.00		
Survey of Intergroup Relations in Basic Teaching Materials.....	315.65		
Services:			
Addressograph.....	\$ 1,705.71		
Editorial.....	5,158.82		
Telephone.....	934.59	7,799.12	25,000.96
Other receipts:			
Publications Division, administrative services.....			8,314.62
Total receipts.....			148,035.58
Cash and investments on hand, July 1, 1948:			
American Security and Trust Company:			
General Fund.....	\$10,081.62		
Building Fund.....	\$20,269.29		
Transferred to Exhibit D.....	20,269.29		
General Education Board Grant funds.....	20,000.00	\$ 30,081.62	
Investments:			
U.S. Savings Bonds, Defense Series F, due July 1, 1954, maturity			
value \$101,000.00.....	74,740.00	104,821.62	

\$252,857.20

Administrative (net):

DISBURSEMENTS

Salaries:

President.....	\$18,000.00		
Vice-President.....	11,006.08		
Assistants.....	50,877.86	\$79,883.94	

Travel expenses:

Administrative.....	\$ 3,209.06		
Executive Committee.....	1,539.71	4,748.77	

Rent.....		10,235.71	
Stationery and office supplies.....		1,666.28	
Telephone and telegraph.....		2,492.53	
Postage and express.....		1,075.65	
General expense.....		2,585.30	
Accountant's fee.....		1,400.00	
Retirement annuities.....		12,713.22	
Furniture and equipment.....		430.00	

Bulletin, Higher Education and National Affairs:

Addressographing and mimeographing.....	\$ 994.37		
Postage.....	1,033.46		
Printing.....	1,757.50		
Miscellaneous.....	830.59		

	\$ 4,615.92		
Less sales.....	776.50	3,839.42	

Contingent:

Contributions:

American University: share of expenses of dinner for British teachers.....	\$ 85.00		
American Council of Learned Societies: share of expenses of dinner for A.A.G. Committee, "National Atlas of the U.S.A.".....	30.00	\$ 115.00	

Expenses in connection with Navy contracts:

Rent.....	\$ 85.00		
Moving expense.....	20.00		
Typewriter rental.....	10.50	115.50	
		\$ 230.50	

Less:

Remittance from Advisory Service on Student Personnel Work for additional services rendered.....	\$150.00		
Return of refund to Carnegie Corporation of unexpended balance of grant for validation of Tests for Primary Mental Abilities in Relation to Occupational Interests and Per- formance in High School Curricula.....	48.05	198.05	32.45
			\$121,103.27

Committees of Council:

Problems and Policies.....	\$ 77.19		
Relationships.....	1,848.46		
Extension of Social Security Benefits, Subcommittee of Committee on Relationships.....	143.90		
Pacific Coast Committee.....	743.39		
Committee on Tax Revision.....	2,956.49		
Committee on Student Personnel Work.....	3,590.65		
Miscellaneous committees:			
Accrediting Procedures.....	\$ 1,272.19		
Atomic Energy Education.....	387.47		
Elementary Education.....	553.48		
Preparation of Manual of College and University Business Administration.....	57.49	2,270.63	11,631.30

Other disbursements and transfers:

Transfer of General Education Board Grant funds.....	\$19,500.00		
Transferred to Building Fund.....	15,000.00	34,500.00	

Total disbursements.....

\$167,234.57

Cash and investments on hand, June 30, 1949:

American Security and Trust Company:			
General Fund.....	\$10,382.63		
General Education Board Grant funds.....	500.00	\$10,882.63	

Investments:

U.S. Savings Bonds, Defense Series F, due July 1954, maturity value \$101,000.00.....	74,740.00	85,622.63	
		<u>\$252,857.20</u>	

EXHIBIT B
AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
Washington, D. C.
PUBLICATIONS DIVISION—STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS
From July 1, 1948 to June 30, 1949

	Total	Eliminations	Grants and Subsidies	Miscellaneous Books and Pamphlets	Visual Aids Material	Tests	Record Cards and Scales	Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards	Publications Division
Gross sales and receipts:									
Sales.....	\$149,698.27	—	\$109,605.91	\$15,609.88	\$10,506.45	—	\$5,213.95	\$15,762.08	—
Royalties.....	300.34	—	225.00	75.34	—	—	—	—	—
Permissions to reprint.....	50.00	—	50.00	—	—	—	—	—	—
Collections for Educational Testing Service (see contra).....	111.28	—	—	—	—	\$ 111.28	—	—	—
Contributions.....	500.00	—	500.00	—	—	—	—	—	—
Reimbursements for services:									
Publications.....	—	\$38,295.66	—	—	—	—	—	—	\$38,295.66
Special funds.....	4,112.87	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4,112.87
Addressograph, mimeograph, and services.....	1,394.25	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,394.25
Transfers from special funds.....	2,140.81	—	2,140.81	—	—	—	—	—	—
Transfer of test funds from merger account (special funds).....	1,937.01	—	—	—	—	1,937.01	—	—	—
Total receipts.....	\$160,244.83	\$38,295.66	\$105,521.72	\$15,685.22	\$10,506.45	\$ 2,048.29	\$5,213.95	\$15,762.08	\$43,802.78
Transfers to close out funds.....	—	22,579.70	—	9,786.64	—	—	—	492.51	12,300.55
	\$160,244.83	\$60,875.36	\$105,521.72	\$25,471.86	\$10,506.45	\$ 2,048.29	\$5,213.95	\$16,254.59	\$56,103.33
Cash and investments, July 1, 1948:									
Cash, American Security & Trust Co.....	81,103.69	—	50,363.04	—	—	8,705.34	—	—	22,035.31
Investments, U.S. Defense Bonds, Series F, due 1955 (American Universities and Colleges handbook).....	2,516.00	—	2,516.00	—	—	—	—	—	—
	\$243,864.52	\$60,875.36	\$158,400.76	\$25,471.86	\$10,506.45	\$10,753.63	\$5,213.95	\$16,254.59	\$78,138.64

EXHIBIT C
AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
Washington, D. C.
STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—SPECIAL FUNDS
From July 1, 1948 to June 30, 1949

	Balance July 1, 1948	Receipts	Disburse- ments	Balance June 30, 1949
<i>Funds</i>				
A Study of Personal Qualities and Interest Characterizing Successful Teachers. Advisory Committee on Educational and Cultural Relations with the Occupied Countries (name changed on May 7, 1949, to "Commission on Occupied Areas"):		\$ 23,000.00	\$ 13,072.52	\$ 9,927.48
Budget 1948-49	—	25,000.00	25,000.00	—
Budget 1949-50	—	25,000.00	7,982.00	17,018.00
Publications	—	2.25	—	2.25
Advisory Service on Student Personnel Work	\$ 1,192.58	5,975.98	5,986.69	1,181.87
American School of Rio de Janeiro—for school supplies and teachers' travel	1,369.00	—	30.00	1,339.00
Canada—U.S. Committee on Education:			{ 245.04 Cr†	
American Committee	685.80	—	{ 440.76	—
Canadian Committee	31.87	—	—	31.87
American Committee	3,606.54	—	{ 245.04 Dr†	3,605.88
Civil Aeronautics Administration Research, CCA 24238	816.66*	2,500.00	{ 245.70	2,500.00
College Admissions Study:		5,994.22	6,235.76	1,059.20*
Budget 1947-48	18,102.30	12,000.00	30,102.30	—
Publications	—	2,881.00	4,049.08	1,168.08*
Anti-Detonation League	—	5,351.20	104.12	5,247.08
Occupational Service Bureau	—	5,351.19	—	5,351.19
College Study in Intergroup Relations:				
Budget 1948-49	1,336.46	25,000.00	26,336.46	—
Budget 1949-50	—	10,291.91	3,945.18	7,252.73
Commission for International Educational Reconstruction:				
Project, Budget, April 1, 1947-August 31, 1948	6,870.22	3,241.55	6,870.22	—
Commission fund	512.00	948.12	3,753.55	—
Publications	—	7,816.65	948.12	—
Project, Budget September 1, 1948-June 15, 1949	—	—	7,816.65	—
Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences:				
Budget 1948, grant	8,539.71	7,136.04	8,539.71	—
Budget 1949, grant	—	1,293.07	1,293.07	5,842.97
Budget 1949-50, contract	3,453.36*	21,588.26	18,133.90	—
Budget 1948-49, contract	—	4,203.52	6,233.62	6,233.62*
Budget 1949-50, contract	2,437.68	—	6,641.20	—
Committee on Education and Social Security:				
Committee on Education and Social Security	7,114.06	8,700.00	15,814.08	—
Budget 1948	—	19,439.25	12,831.16	6,628.09
Budget 1949	2,161.04	2,121.50	2,793.33	1,580.22
Publications, sale of reports	1,021.79	1,000.00	792.00	1,229.79
Committee on Intercultural Relations of National Council of Teachers of English				
Carried forward	\$ 50,711.05	\$224,569.64	\$215,002.17	\$ 60,278.52

Financial Statements

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EXHIBIT C—Continued

Funds

<i>Brought forward</i>			
Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education:			
Budget 1948-49			
Workshop for representatives of Negro Institutes and agencies concerned with resources - use education.			
Tuskegee Institute, summer 1948			
Sales of Gadsburg Conference II report			
Conference on Role of Universities in International Cooperation			
Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education:			
Project			
Educational Clinic			
Cultural Centers in Buenos Aires, Cordoba and Rosario, Argentina:			
Second grant			
Third grant			
Cultural Institutes in Cuba			
Educational Survey of the Arabic-Speaking Countries of the Near East			
Foreign Language Survey and Project			
General Committee of the U. S. National Commission for Unesco			
Language Schools Service:			
Grant SCC 713 (\$182,110.00)			
Grant SCC 1217 (\$159,814.00 and supplemental grant no. 1, \$5,000.00, and no. 2, \$25,967.00)			
Grant SCC 1641 (\$171,000.00)			
National Academy of Science, Fulbright account			
Inter-group Education in Cooperating Schools:			
Budget 1947-48			
<i>Sale of Reading Leaders</i>			
Hinsdale project			
Manual of University and College Business Organization and Administration			
Measurement Book Project			
National Committee on Reading Examinations			
Naval Science and Research Study of Scientists Who Have Voluntarily Left Naval Research			
Contract N8-our 68400 (\$8,000.00)			
Contract N8-our 68400 (\$8,000.00)			
Naval Scientific Personnel and Research, Task Order I, Contract N7-our-422			
Subcontracts under Task Order I:			
Development of Procedures for Evaluating Scientific Personnel			
A Study for the Construction and Validation of a Recommendation Blank To Be Used in the Selection of Scientific Personnel			
Investigation Dealing with Administrative Values and Work Ways of Scientist and Nonscientist Administrators, and Follow-up Study of Scientists Who Have Voluntarily Left Naval Research			
Naval Science Education, Task Order II			
Naval Scientific Resources, Task Order III			
General			
Implementation			
Publications			
Grant for printing final General Report			
Preparation of brochure covering various aspects of student counseling (Committee on Student Personnel Work)			
Preparation of brochure in use of test results (Subcommittee, Student Personnel Work)			
Program for adequate placement services for graduating students			
<i>Carried forward</i>			

Balance July 1, 1948	Receipts	Disburse- ments	Balance June 30, 1949
\$ 50,711.05	\$224,569.64	\$215,002.17	\$ 60,278.52
1,482.49	1,600.00	3,082.49	—
2,477.94	—	2,477.94	—
39.90	—	39.90	—
—	3,500.00	2,345.89	1,154.11
1,534.47	5,550.00	5,628.21	1,456.26
—	156.36	37.60	118.76
24,958.36	—	20,337.91	4,620.45
—	11,000.00	—	11,000.00
19,363.51	2,500.00	2,500.00	—
1,846.70	358.35	1,191.30	18,172.21
38,500.46	—	2,080.95	12,100.00
—	750.00	30,493.89	8,630.67
18,750.00	—	750.00	—
96,000.40	—	18,750.00	—
—	25,967.00	10,815.25	20,152.15
—	171,000.00	137,824.72	137,824.72
—	1,458.30	33,175.28	291.66*
656.13*	11,221.11	1,749.96	—
4,367.47	7,789.12	10,564.98	—
195.39	—	8,771.87	3,384.72
3,429.67	9.34	195.39	—
6,671.43	—	370.33	3,068.68
310.81*	5,000.00	1,229.51	10,441.92
2,695.24*	4,273.08	5,922.42	39.85
1,525.00*	2,697.86	2.62	—
—	4,138.40	7,512.15	3,323.15*
3,401.13*	30,305.68	28,815.42	—
—	6,045.00	26,804.55	—
—	—	6,045.00	—
2,632.45*	11,166.66	11,166.66	—
19,400.84	22,787.25	22,787.25	5,933.47*
1,719.26*	16,230.07	16,230.07	4,198.39*
17,362.06	—	13,490.75	3,881.31
2.60	27,600.00	25,182.63	2,417.37
—	1,747.13	445.52	1,304.21
—	7,000.00	—	7,000.00
1,225.96	1,009.89	2,235.85	—
3,728	—	—	517.35
35.28	—	22.80	12.48
\$276,732.47	\$631,941.11	\$627,239.51	\$281,434.07

EXHIBIT C—Continued

Funds

Brought forward

	Balance July 1, 1948	Receipts	Disburse- ments	Balance June 30, 1949
Reconstituted Committee on Educational Tests and Measurements.....	\$276,732.47	\$631,941.11	\$627,239.51	\$281,434.07
Rehabilitation of American-sponsored schools in China and neighboring countries.....	50,000.00	—	1,171.13	48,828.87
Revision of Cumulative Record forms and related materials.....	13,523.81	—	11,151.13	2,172.48
Revision Program, Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards:	283.83	—	114.00	169.83
Budget 1948.....	13,778.54	1,200.01	14,978.55	—
Budget 1949.....	—	10,706.07	6,363.16	4,342.91
Selected studies for universities and colleges in Japan and Korea.....	3,447.11	—	3,447.11	—
Study of the Navy School in Manila.....	—	—	2,960.29*	2,960.29*
Study of the Problems of Disabled Veterans in American Schools and Colleges, Washington, D. C.....	277.59	—	—	277.59
Study of the Soviet Union in Social Studies Teaching Materials.....	903.11	—	139.50	763.61
Survey of higher education in Canton, Ohio.....	—	2,500.00	167.84	2,332.16
Survey of Intergroup Relations in Basic Teaching Materials:	—	—	—	—
Project.....	2,406.53	—	5,158.87	2,752.34*
Publications.....	—	1,421.90	363.58	1,058.32
Tennessee Valley Authority Area—Promoting Programs of Regional Development.....	—	2,500.00	200.00	2,300.00
Tests now handled by Educational Testing Service:	—	—	—	—
Cooperative Test Service.....	8,106.97*	27,667.06	7,397.97	20,269.09
New York High School Equivalency Testing Program.....	—	669.28	—	7,437.69*
Psychological Examinations.....	—	19,831.92	1,418.27	18,413.65
Teacher Examination project.....	—	30,316.84	30,316.84	—
Veterans Testing Service.....	—	22,298.29	496.68	21,801.61
Thurstone Primary Mental Abilities Research fund.....	1,728.54	—	745.41	983.13
Work Conferences, consultants' services in connection with the program of developing and strengthening state councils on teacher education, under Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education.....	4,615.04	—	1,862.76	2,752.28
Collector of Internal Revenue—withholding taxes.....	—	35,153.10	35,153.10	—
	<u>\$359,889.60</u>	<u>\$786,405.58</u>	<u>\$751,245.90</u>	<u>\$394,749.28</u>

* Overdraft.

† Represents adjustment of prior year's disbursement.

EXHIBIT D
AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
Washington, D. C.

STATEMENT OF CASH RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS—BUILDING FUND

From July 1, 1948 to June 30, 1949

RECEIPTS

Transferred from American Council on Education General Fund.....	\$15,000.00
Cash on hand, July 1, 1948	
American Security and Trust Company.	<u>20,269.29</u>
	<u>\$35,269.29</u>

DISBURSEMENTS

Cash and Investments on hand, June 30, 1949	
American Security and Trust Company.....	\$15,011.79
Investments:	
U. S. Savings Bonds, Series F, due July 1960, maturity	
value \$27,375.00.....	<u>20,257.50</u>
	<u>\$35,269.29</u>

SCHEDULE I
AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION
Washington, D. C.

PUBLICATIONS DIVISION

SUMMARY OF CASH, ACCOUNTS RECEIVABLE, INVENTORIES, AND COMMITMENTS AND/OR ACCOUNTS PAYABLE AT JUNE 30, 1949
(As prepared by the Manager of the Publications Division)

	Cash on hand June 30, 1949	Accounts Receivable	Inventories	Total	Commitments and/or Accounts Payable
Commission on International Educational Reconstruction.....	\$ 1,324.56	\$ 308.35	\$ 4,000.00	\$ 1,324.56	—
Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs.....	3,826.33	—	114.28	3,826.33	—
Commission on Motion Pictures.....	96.60	—	—	96.60	—
Committee on Asiatic Studies.....	1,785.57	12.34	50.40	1,848.31	—
Committee on Education and Social Security.....	186.42	—	—	186.42	—
Committee on Teacher Education.....	40,798.01	3,697.63	5,623.00	50,118.64	—
Committee on Youth Problems.....	4,803.21	496.02	6,115.00	11,414.23	\$1,750.00
Conference on Preparation of Teachers for Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes.....	103.74 Cr.	67.80	293.41	255.47	—
Cooperative Study in General Education.....	2,780.90	732.94	3,980.90	7,494.74	—
Handbooks:.....					
<i>American Universities and Colleges</i>	25,430.89*	1,381.67	8,359.13	35,171.69	—
<i>American Junior Colleges</i>	2,762.06 Cr.	456.50	2,166.35	139.21 Cr.	—
Unrestricted funds.....	24,056.71	4,480.04	12,259.50	40,796.25	5,054.82
Totals.....	\$102,221.45	\$11,633.29	\$47,961.97	\$156,816.71	\$6,804.82

* In addition, \$2,516.00 (cost) are invested in U.S. Savings Bonds, for the *American Universities and Colleges* handbook account.

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